THE

CRITICAL REVIEW.

APRIL, 1800.

The History, Civil and Ecclesiastical, and Survey of the Antiquities, of Winchester. By the Rev. John Milner, M. A. F. S. A. 2 Vols. 4to. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Cadell *and* Davies. 1799.

Reflections on the Principles and Institutions of Popery, with reference to Civil Society and Government, especially that of this Kingdom; occasioned by the Rev. John Milner's History of Winchester. In Letters to the Rev. John Monk Newbolt, Rector of St. Maurice, Winchester. By John Sturges, LL. D. 4to. 6s. Boards. Cadell *and* Davies. 1799.

A Letter to the Rev. John Milner, M. A. F. S. A. Author of the Civil and Ecclesiastical History of Winchester; occasioned by his false and illiberal Aspersions on the Memory and Writings of Dr. Benjamim Hoadley, formerly Bishop of Winchester. By Robert Hoadley Ashe, D. D. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Bickerstaff. 1799.

FROM this concatenation of articles it will be perceived, that Mr. Milner's work has excited an opposition of great weight and respectability. This we shall afterwards consider, our first purpose being to examine his book in its most essential point of view, as an antiquarian and topographical production.

Our author begins his preface in the following terms.

'A little more than a twelvemonth ago the author was far from imagining that he should ever add to the list of local histories, which appeared to him to be already swelled beyond due bounds. We have now separate histories, not only of most of the counties, cities and towns, of any note, in England, but also of innumerable parishes, villages, and hamlets, for most of which we are evidently more indebted to the partiality of the writers for the places of their nativity or residence, than to the celebrity or importance, either ancient or modern, of the places themselves. The first criterion for judging of the utility of such performances, are evidently the materials which the subjects of them afford for history. If these

are sufficiently numerous and important to support a connected and interesting narration, it cannot be wrong to work them up into a history; but to weave the annals of insignificant places, like writing the lives of obscure individuals, out of ordinary and domestic transactions, is to hold them up to the contempt, instead of the admiration of the public.' Vol. i. P. 5.

This paragraph is not a very favourable specimen of composition, as the style is heavy and inelegant, and not in every part strictly grammatical.

Mr. Milner proceeds to give some account of those authors who have treated of the antiquities of Winchester; of Rudborne, who wrote in the fifteenth century; of Gale and Mr. Thomas Warton, the former of whom published his work in 1715, and the latter about 1760. A work on this subject, which appeared in 1773, he has carelessly ascribed to Mr. Wavel, who only wrote a few pages of it. This mistake is the more to be blamed, as Mr. Wavel is repeatedly censured by Mr. Milner for errors not his own.

'As to the general manner of writing a local history, this the author thinks ought not to be different from that which is laid down by the ablest judges for writing history in common, namely, that a regular series of events should be kept up, and that the motives, causes, consequences, and chief circumstances of such events should be pointed out; as a bare rehearsal of insulated facts cannot afford either much instruction or much pleasure. In like manner, it is impossible to present a just and adequate idea of any particular city or place, at a certain period of time, without some general notion of the state of the kingdom or empire to which the same belongs, and of the transactions that are then going forward in it. This enlarged manner of writing the history of our city, in particular, is the more necessary, as having been for so many ages the capital and seat of government of the most considerable kingdom in the island, the history of Winchester unavoidably becomes, in a great measure, the history of the Gewissi, or West Saxons. One inconveniency, however, of this plan, has been, that the work has swelled to its present size, far beyond what was either desired or foreseen. After all, the author will not deny that he has launched out into several dissertations, which do not strictly belong to his subject; nevertheless, if he has been led aside on these occasions, out of his strait way, it has been for the sake of pointing out something new, of illustrating something obscure, or of establishing something doubtful or disputed. Should he be condemned for these digressions, by some readers, admitting that he has not totally failed in the object of them, he is sure of being pardoned by others.

'He has been copious in his account of the establishment and progress of religion, in this city and neighbourhood, during the Saxon period, and of the different changes that took place in it there,

in the two centuries preceding our own, because he has undertaken to write an ecclesiastical, as well as a civil history, and because the temporal condition of Winchester has, at all times, been particularly connected with the situation of its church establishment. In speaking, however, of the latter of these periods, he has thought it necessary to be very particular in the choice of his authorities, and very exact in referring to them; accordingly he has hardly quoted any but the most approved and orthodox historians of the established church, such as Heylyn, Camden, Stow, Wood, Echard, and Collier, except in certain facts of a less public nature, where he has been obliged to have recourse to catholic writers. By the same rule, in his account of the presbyterians and quakers, he has preferred the authority of their own writers and advocates.

'But the chief rule of all others, by which the author professes to be guided, is that prescribed to every historian by Tully:—*Ne quid falsi dicere audeat, ne quid veri non audeat.* If he has a vanity, it is in thinking that he has observed this rule better than many of his cotemporary writers, who equally profess to be guided by it. The truth is, those who are supposed to lead the public opinion, namely, authors, are much more frequently led by it. Subsisting on popular applause, as Tertullian describes the condition of the ancient philosophers, few public writers have the courage to oppose the favourite errors and prejudices of mankind, being conscious that, on such occasions, where they do not make converts to their opinion, they are sure of making enemies to themselves. With respect to the author, having little expectation of gaining applause, and being sure of not acquiring profit by his laborious task, the chief pleasure that has cheared and supported him under it, has been that which is attached to the pursuit and attainment of truth, as it has appeared to him on the several subjects of his narration and disquisition. Hence, in conformity with the former rule, he has sometimes dared to oppose the greatest authorities in their respective studies, where it appeared that they were evidently mistaken; for example, Camden, Leland, and Gibson, in points of topography; Carte, Rapin, and Hume, in those of history; Stephens, Warton, and Lowth, in the particular account of our cathedral and city; but what is a much bolder attempt, he has not been afraid of thwarting many deep rooted opinions of the present age, in matters that are directly or remotely connected with their religion and their politics.' Vol. i. p. 15.

So difficult it is for our feeble nature to estimate objects with complete candor, that it is possible even for a persecutor to look upon himself as a man of perfect equity. It will be seen in the progress of the work how far Mr. Milner does justice to his own declaration.

He begins his history of Winchester with the fabulous accounts of its foundation by king Hudibras, 892 years before

Chriſt. Inſtead of paſſing over ſuch fables in ſilent contempt, he takes the trouble of refuting them. It is thought very unfortunate to ſtumble at the threſhold; and we muſt confeſs, that, in peruſing a topographical work nearly of the nineteenth century, we were not a little ſtartled and confounded by the following note.

'The ſame learned authors, who of late years have proved that the pagan mythology in general, and the early hiſtory of Egypt in particular, related by the father of hiſtory, as he is called, Herodotus, is no more than a metamorphoſis of certain parts in the book of Geneſis, have alſo brought plauſible arguments to ſhew that the ſubſtance of the Iliad of Homer concerning the ſiege of Troy, and the immortal heroes engaged therein, on both ſides, is no other than certain altered and miſapplied ſtories relating to the war of the ten tribes againſt the tribe of Benjamin. See "Hiſtoire Veritable des Temps Fabuleux, par l'Abbé Rocher du Guerin;" and "Herodote Hiſtorien du Peuple Hebreu ſans le Sçavoir, par l'Abbé Bonnaud." Theſe works were too advantageous to the cauſe of revelation for the authors of them to eſcape the reſentment of the philoſophic perſecutors, when they had obtained power. They were accordingly both martyred in the church of the Carmes, at Paris, Sept. 2, 1792.' Vol. i. P. 2.

The author ſeems, in this note, to pledge himſelf to the reader for ſubſequent remarkable defects of judgement, and for a viſionary diſpoſition, the worſt of all diſqualifications for hiſtorical reſearch. He may be aſſured that eccentricity can never be advantageous to the cauſe of revelation; and, on this as well as on other occaſions, he ſhould have remembered the axiom, *Quod non juvat, obſtat.*

Another circumſtance which ſtruck us at the commencement of the work is the author's vague and inaccurate mode of quotation, which renders it difficult to refer to the page or paſſage uſed. Whether Venta, afterwards ſtyled Wincheſter by the Saxons, owed its foundation to the primæval Celtic inhabitants of Britain or to the Belgæ, is uncertain. Mr. Milner rightly diſtinguiſhes between theſe nations; yet unaccountably omits the grand conſideration that the Belgæ uſed the Gothic tongue. As he proceeds, he ſtarts a ſingular idea, that the inſtruments called *celts* were the tomahawks of the ancient Britons. We have been informed by a learned friend, that the word *celtis* is uſed in the vulgate tranſlation of the Bible for a wedge or chiſel; but we have not an opportunity of verifying the reference. The form of theſe inſtruments, and the numbers that have been found at once in ancient quarries, ſeem to confirm the interpretation.

Mr. Milner ſo completely overwhelms us with prolix and extraneous diſcuſſion, the ſhow and not the ſubſtance of in-

quiry, not the ſpirit of erudition, but rather its very lees and *caput mortuum*, that a diſguſt at his general manner will frequently ſave him from particular criticiſm; for even the moſt patient reader will be apt to ſhrink, as the hunter does when ſome animals exert their *fœtor* in their own defence. A formal and antiquarian critique upon his work might employ many pages in pointing out the dull errors of a dull modern referring to dull ancients, but would not intereſt the readers of our Journal.

We are far from regarding Mr. Milner's profeſſion of the catholic religion as any obſtacle to his antiquarian fame: on the contrary, a truly learned Roman catholic may perhaps of all perſons be the beſt qualified to give an account of a religious place like Wincheſter; but we muſt aſſert, after a careful peruſal of his work, that he gives multiplied proofs of his not being well initiated into antiquarian lore. A ſtriking inſtance occurs in the following note on Boadicea.

'Tacitus, in his Annals, calls her Boudicea, in his Agricola, Voadicea, Xiphelin terms her Bonduca, whilſt her own coins, publiſhed by Camden, are inſcribed, one BooTika, another Boduo (niſi forſan pro Bodunis aut Dobunis). The ſtrange licences which the Roman writers take, on every occaſion, in ſmoothing and latinizing, what they deem barbarous names, will ſufficiently account for the difference which we find between them and the Britiſh writers with reſpect to the name of the prince, concerning whom ſo much has been ſaid above. By his medal in Camden, it appears that his genuine name was Arivog. This is not a little changed by his native writers, who call him Arviragus, but much more ſo by foreigners, who moulded Arivog ſucceſſively into Carivoctus, Carivactus, Caractus, and Caractacus.' Vol. i. p. 34.

It is doubted among real antiquaries, whether any coins with inſcriptions belong to the ancient Britons. The late Mr. Southgate, an unexceptionable judge, did not ſuppoſe that there were any. The compariſon of the types with thoſe confeſſedly Gallic, and the ſuperiority of Gaul over Britain at that early period, in wealth and commerce, ſerve to confirm this opinion. The coin here idly aſcribed to Boadicea was, we think, publiſhed by Bouterou among the Gallic coins, and has certainly as little connection with Boadicea as with the queen Huncamunca. The coin marked *Arivog* is in the ſame predicament.

It is ſurpriſing at the preſent day to find any writer, of whatever religious perſuaſion he may be, a believer in the thundering legion (p. 38.). In the next page we were equally aſtoniſhed at the author's anility, when he gravely aſſerts, that 'the exiſtence and Chriſtianity of Lucius *is* atteſted by coins no leſs than by books and manuſcripts.' We have in vain conſulted Uſher; and the author's vague mode of quotation is certainly of ſervice to him, as it prevents the immediate detec-

tion of many errors. We may here obſerve, that it will be proper for future hiſtorians of Wincheſter to verify every quotation in Mr. Milner's work before they uſe it. As to the coins of Lucius, they are the mere creatures of antiquarian fiction. So exuberant are the proofs of Mr. Milner's *ſkill* and *judgement*, that we muſt paſs over numerous examples; but we are arreſted by an extraordinary one (p. 53), in which a grave and veracious account is given of the eleven thouſand virgins. What a prize for the devil's maw, and how difficult at any time to find ſuch a number! Mr. Milner ſhould have known that this fable was overturned a hundred years ago by learned Romiſh writers, who at the ſame time explained its origin. A virgin called *Undecimilla*, as being the eleventh child of her parents (juſt as *Quartilla* is the fourth), was named in ſome old martyrologies in this way—*Undecim. M. Virg.* that is, Undecimilla, martyr and virgin. Some ignorant monk interpreted this as ſignifying eleven thouſand virgins. We have heard of the progreſs of knowledge; but our preſent author has certainly the greateſt retrograde force, and alacrity in ſinking, that we ever met with. To uſe the phraſe of Helvetius, 'his mind is ſtored with acquired ignorance.' With equal exactneſs (p. 65) he quotes Verſtegan* for a very bold aſſertion, namely, that the Saxon armament under Hengiſt and Horſa conſiſted of three veſſels, each containing 3000 men! Even a ſchoolboy muſt know that 3000 men cannot be contained in a modern firſt-rate man of war; and if Mr. Milner had ſtruck off a cypher he might have been about the truth.

The long note (p. 70, 71) concerning the origin of the Saxons, Angles, and Jutes, is liable to many objections. The Odin of the *Runnic* bards is a ſtrange expreſſion for the Odin of Scandinavian poetry. The word *runic* is applicable ſolely to a form of characters uſed in inſcriptions; and we do not recollect that any poem has been found written in the runic letter. The idea that the name of Jutes is the ſame with that of Getæ, is equally vague; nor did they penetrate ſo far north as the Norwegians: if their deſcendants in the Iſle of Wight claim the praiſe of beauty, it muſt be ſhared with their deſcendants in Kent, and we have never ſeen or heard that either exceed the witches of Lancaſhire.

Mr. Milner has ſometimes the praiſe of pointing out real miſtakes of his antiquarian predeceſſors. For inſtance, he has ſhown that Mr. Warton has mentioned a ſiege of Wincheſter, by the French, in 1377, while it appears, from the original authors, that the place beſieged was Winchelſea; and he has evinced that the pretended court and deeds of Arthur, uſually transferred to Caer Gwent in Hampſhire or Wincheſter, really belonged to Caer Gwent in Monmouthſhire, the Venta Silu-

* We have in vain explored the paſſage.

rum. As he abounds with belief, it is natural that he ſhould beſtow a portion of it upon the dubious exiſtence of Arthur; but the paſſages of Nennius's hiſtory, to which he refers, may be claſſed among the numerous interpolations which disfigure that old work. If any additional proof that Mr. Milner is not deeply immerſed in erudition ſhould be thought neceſſary, we might refer to the note in p. 86, in which the ſtory of Roſamond of Lombardy is quoted from Matthew of Weſtminſter, inſtead of Paul Warnefrid, the original author in the eighth century.

Let us now ſelect an extract from this work, that the reader may judge for himſelf.

'Early in the ſeventh century the greateſt part of the iſland had received the Chriſtian faith. The ancient Britons, who were now confined to the mountains of Wales and to Cornwall, had never abandoned it, ſince they embraced it in the reign of their king Lucius. The Picts were converted by St. Ninian, and the Scots by St. Palladius, in the fifth century, who had received his commiſſion from pope Celeſtine. With reſpect to the different kingdoms of the Saxons, thoſe to the ſouth eaſt and the north were in a great meaſure converted, with their reſpective kings, by St. Auguſtine, St. Paulinus, and the other monks ſent on this charitable errand by pope Gregory the Great, who had been infinitely deſirous of undertaking it himſelf, and who actually left Rome for this purpoſe. But our anceſtors, who inhabited the ſouthern and weſtern parts of the iſland, together with the great nation which occupied moſt of the midland provinces, namely, the Mercians, were ſtill immerſed in the ſhades of idolatry, and as no ſuch favourable circumſtances appeared in their regard, which had ſmoothed the way for the converſion of their above-mentioned countrymen, it required an apoſtolic ſpirit of the moſt ardent kind in the preacher, who ſhould venture firſt to diſabuſe them of their errors. Such was St. Birinus, a zealous prieſt, and according to ſome writers, a monk, but of what country is unknown, who being informed of the ſtate of Chriſtianity in Britain, preſented himſelf to pope Honorius, in order to receive a deputation from him to announce the goſpel in thoſe parts of the iſland, into which it had not yet penetrated. His zeal meeting with due approbation and encouragement, he was directed to proceed to Genoa, which city lay directly in his way to Britain, to receive ordination from the biſhop of it, by name Aſterius, as likewiſe, in all probability, to learn the Saxon language from ſome of the Franks, who frequented that mart.

'Proceeding from Genoa, through France, our apoſtle came to the ſea port on the channel, from which he was to embark for our iſland. Here, having performed the ſacred myſteries, he left behind him what is called a corporal, containing the bleſſed ſacrament, which he did not recollect until the veſſel, in which he ſailed, was

some way out at sea. It was in vain to argue the case with the Pagan sailors who steered the ship, and it was impossible for him to leave his treasure behind him. In this extremity, supported by a strong faith, he stept out of the ship upon the waters, which became firm under his feet; in short, he walked, in this manner, to land, and having secured what he was anxious about, returned on board the vessel in the same manner, which, in the mean time, had remained stationary in the place where he left it. The ship's crew were of the nation to which he was sent, who, being struck with the miracle which they had witnessed, lent a docile ear to his instructions. Thus our apostle began the conversion of the West Saxons, before he landed upon their territory. This prodigy is so well attested by the most judicious historians, that those who have had the greatest interest to deny it, have not dared openly to do so.' Vol. i. p. 87.

Even in this passage there are gross mistakes, and, to add to the wonder, in Mr. Milner's favourite province of ecclesiastic history. Only a small portion of the Picts, those between the Forth and the Grampian hills, were converted by St. Ninian, the grand mass of that nation being converted by St. Columba, as Mr. Milner might have found on looking into Bede's history. St. Palladius was speedily removed by death; and the chief apostle of the Scots, now called Irish, was St. Patrick. Such errors, in our author's chief department of study, may well induce the reader to suspend his assent to more minute points of information. As to the miracle of St. Birinus, we see nothing in it, and deem it a far greater miracle that one believer of it should be found in England in this enlightened age.

Our author is so short-sighted as to applaud the retreat of kings and princes into monasteries; a circumstance not unusual in the Saxon times. Does he not perceive that this ill-judged piety, or rather this shameful flight from the indispensable duties of magistracy, was the grand cause of the extension of the Danish and Norman yoke over England? The duty of a monarch is not to repeat prayers and masses, but to administer justice to his people, and lead them in battle against their enemies.

So much of Mr. Milner's work is occupied with the general history of England, that we must be excused from a formal examination of such trite topics; and his quotations are generally so vague, and his inductions so illogical, that a minute discussion would be mere waste of time and patience. As an instance, we shall only mention that he quotes Ralph Higden and Thomas Rudborne, writers of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, as vouchers for the coronation of Egbert, at Winchester, by the style of king of all England. No such style

could have been used, as the Northumbrian kingdom existed in full vigour for more than a century afterwards. Is Mr. Milner a stranger to the distinctions of primate of England, and primate of all England? Athelstan, who reigned a century after Egbert, assumed the title of king of all Britain, as his coins and charters evince. The discovery of mistakes will afford pain, not pleasure, to an ingenuous mind; but it is a duty which we owe to the public; and certainly, of all writers, Mr. Milner is the least entitled to any unwonted favour; for his censures exceed the common bounds of decency. Thus he accuses three of the most respectable writers of English history—Carte, Hume, and Rapin—of *shameful and malicious perversion.* This heavy charge, gentle reader, relates to a story concerning king Edwy, and our author's favourite St. Dunstan; and yet in spite of all that Mr. Milner has said on this tale, so important in his own eyes, and so risible in those of other persons, we must take the liberty of affirming, that we consider Edwy as a fool, and Dunstan as a knave. Our author supposes that the word *lurdane* is derived from lord Dane, arising from the Danish tyranny over England; but it is, in reality, an Icelandic and Danish word with a root and derivatives signifying a heavy lazy fellow; and from the same source are the French *lourd* and *lourdaut.* The Danish king, Swein, is, by Mr. Milner, oddly baptised Swayne; and we are informed (p. 177) that the justice and clemency of Canute his son are undoubtedly to be ascribed to the Christian religion which he had embraced. This argumentation would be proper if all Christian monarchs were just and clement; but unhappily these virtues have been as frequently found under other systems. Does Mr. Milner (p. 223) believe that a living dog could have been found in a mass of solid stone when sawn asunder? For this curious addition to our stories of frogs and toads, William of Newburgh is quoted, l. ii. c. 28.

In the reign of Henry the third, a remarkable incident occurred at Winchester.

'In the year 1249, the king coming to Winchester, where he was often accustomed to take his place amongst the judges, and to assist in trying causes, two merchants of Brabant come and complain to him, with many tears, that, in passing near this city, they had been stopped, and robbed of no less than 200 marks, by persons actually attending upon the king's court, at the same time offering to prove their charge by the trial of the sword. The persons accused are seized upon, and impeached of the robbery in question, but, the jury being formed of the bettermost people of the city, who happen to be infected with the same guilt, they are, without hesitation, acquitted. The merchants return to the king, and persisting in their complaints of the injustice that had been done to them,

whereupon he assembles his counsellors, who tell him, that the neighbourhood of Winchester is infamous, throughout the kingdom, for the robberies, violences, and murders, that are committed there upon strangers; that the judges and magistrates had in vain attempted to eradicate this evil, because the juries in general are the accomplices of the persons accused; that the great number of strangers, particularly from foreign parts, who flock to this city, through the neighbouring port of Southampton, partly on account of the court being kept in it, partly on account of the great fairs that are held here, is a constant source of temptation to the ill-disposed. The king therefore calling together the bailiffs and chief inhabitants of the city and neighbourhood, into the castle, thus addresses them:—"What are these crimes that are laid to your charge? there is not a part of the country in such bad repute for robberies and murders as is this city, with its suburbs and neighbourhood. I am witness to them myself, and a sufferer by them. My wine is openly and triumphantly carried away from the carts, whilst they are conveying it to my castle. I am quite ashamed of the city, from which I derive my birth. It is probable, nay it is certain, that you citizens and countrymen, now before me, are partners in these crimes. However, I am resolved to extirpate them, though it should be necessary to assemble all the people of England hither for this purpose." Saying this, he cries out with a loud voice to his attendants:—"Shut the castle gates, shut them immediately." The bishop being present, now rises up to moderate the royal indignation, and expresses himself as follows:—"Be merciful, sire, be merciful, there are many good and loyal subjects here, who ought not to be shut up like prisoners. You do not even accuse any others except the guilty persons of this city, and their confederates?" Then turning to the assembly, he says:—"By all the spiritual power, with which I am invested, as your bishop, and under pain of excommunication, I require of you to reveal what you know of these scandalous proceedings." Accordingly, twelve men of the city or neighbourhood are impannelled, and sworn to make a true report of what they can discover of the aforesaid robbery. After long consultation, they declare that they are unable to make any discovery whatever upon the subject. Upon this the king is provoked to a degree of fury, and exclaims:—"Carry away those artful traitors, tie them, and cast them into the dungeon below, and let me have twelve other men of the city and neighbourhood, who will tell us the truth." In short, a new jury, indifferently chosen from the city or county, is impannelled, who, after some deliberation together, lay open a shocking confederacy, for the purposes of rapine, in which many persons of the fairest character, and the most ample fortunes in the city and neighbourhood, as also several of the king's household and guards, are found to be concerned. Of these many are taken, some fly to the churches for refuge, and others escape. No fewer, however, than thirty are condemned and hanged, and about as many more

are left in priſon, expecting the ſame fate. Thus was the evil itſelf removed, but this city, together with Southampton and the county in general, long bore the diſgrace of having been infected with it.' Vol. i. p. 253.

To the end of the reign of that monarch, Wincheſter vied with London in opulence and ſplendor. Its marked decline began under his ſucceſſor; and about the reign of Elizabeth it ſunk into its preſent inſignificance. Our author has interwoven ſo much of the eccleſiaſtic and political hiſtory of England, that to extract only the parts which relate to Wincheſter would be a freſh toil; and a regular analyſis of this work would be a mere repetition of the trivialities of Engliſh hiſtory. We ſhall therefore continue our occaſional remarks.

The ſeal (mentioned in p. 268) inſcribed *ad recognitionem debitorum apud Wintoniam*, muſt have belonged to a particular board of office at Wincheſter; and the aſſumption of it as the city ſeal ſeems to have ariſen from ignorance of the Latin tongue. In p. 269, Mr. Milner has put the word *daughter* inſtead of *ſiſter*, in ſpeaking of the princeſs Mary becoming a nun. When he arrives at modern periods, he is equally vague in his quotations, careleſsly but conveniently marking only the name of the author. His exultation on the 'joyful occaſion' of the coronation of Philip and Mary is a curious circumſtance; and, when we conſider that diſgraceful and bloody reign, we might be inclined to pay a more forcible compliment to his head and heart. To the abolition of many monuments of ſuperſtition at Wincheſter, and the firm eſtabliſhment of the reformation under Elizabeth, he is inclined to impute the decline of Wincheſter. A more candid inveſtigator would have recollected its want of a fort or even navigable river at a time when commerce began to form the grand ſource of Engliſh opulence, its diſtance from the centre of the kingdom, and other cauſes which conſpired in effecting its decline. It is not a fair inference that the reformation was one of the chief cauſes: it might be more ſafely aſſerted, that, if the biſhopric itſelf had been aboliſhed, the city would only have proſpered the more in trade and manufactures; for it is well known to every ſcholar in ſtatiſtics, that eccleſiaſtic domination oppreſſes and overwhelms ſecular improvements. Mr. Milner will allow us to uſe the grand example of Rome, its Campania, and the Pontine Marſhes.

In treating of the hiſtory of Wincheſter, ſince the reformation, our author is rather to be regarded as a ſatiriſt than as an hiſtorian. The repeated inſults offered by him to the religion and conſtitution of his country muſt diſguſt even a candid and moderate Roman catholic; but happily his prejudices form ſo narrow a circle, that, like a ſcorpion incloſed with fire, he

only wounds his head with his tail; and it is a fortunate circumstance in human affairs, that the most malicious writers are at the same time the weakest. But to this part of the subject we shall return when we consider the pamphlets written by respectable authors in answer to Mr. Milner; which, with the second volume, we must reserve for another article. Yet we cannot wholly pass over some sentiments contained in the last pages of the first volume. The present light and elegant style of architecture is called by Mr. Milner the 'bow-window style.' Has he never heard of an *Oriel*, or is it possible that he should not know that the bow-window is a peculiar feature of his own favourite Gothic? We confess we have hardly met with a more risible instance of the power of prejudice than in an author thus fighting in the dark, and mistaking his friends for his foes. He proceeds to say, in the true spirit of a Roman catholic priest, that 'this style has been produced not by any principle either of the beautiful or the sublime, but merely by a passion to see and be seen: hence they (posterity) will not fail to pronounce that vanity was our predominant vice.' This is puerile, as well as unjust; for the processions of barons, priests, and ladies, in ancient times, were greater sacrifices to vanity than the innocent bow-window which so much excites our author's choler, in spite of a sentence in a book which perhaps he has read, 'preferring darkness to light because their deeds are evil.' But, in Mr. Milner's eye, Cato must be a vain pagan, because he wished his house to be open on all sides, that his fellow-citizens might witness all his actions. In the same page, the writer regrets that some of the gates at Winchester have been removed, but forgets that, while they were high enough for the bishop's coach, they might not afford space for a waggon loaded with goods.

'In the same barbarous taste, we see the stupendous military ditches daily filling up, to make flower beds; the majestic walls of flint and stone, interlaced with unfading ivy, which have stood the fury of destructive sieges, and of more destructive time, for so many centuries, unfeelingly demolished, and meanly replaced with vulgar brick masonry.' Vol. i. p. 448.

Thus cordially does Mr. Milner regret the progress of knowledge, improvement, and national prosperity!

(To be continued.)

Asiatic Researches; or, Transactions of the Society instituted in Bengal, for inquiring into the History and Antiquities, the Arts, Sciences, and Literature, of Asia. Vol. V. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Sewell. 1799.

LIKE the former volumes of this work, the present displays marks of diligence and attention, and extends the limits of our knowledge of the east. If no articles excel or even equal those which were dictated by the enlightened mind and extensive learning of the first president of the society, let it be considered that much may be effected in humbler walks; and, in a comparatively new country, with the assistance of a language hitherto little known, to see and to question are the chief exertions which are required.

The advertisement of the editor we cannot wholly approve. Without professing to decide the question of priority between the ordinances of Menu, and the Mosaic account of the creation, he evidently leans towards the superior beauty and sublimity, as well as, in some degree, the greater antiquity of the Indian narrative. They certainly agree in their outlines; and either one was copied from the other, or both were borrowed from some common original. But the superior sublimity of Hebrew narrative must be immediately felt, without the assistance of Longinus; and we need only add the parallel passage of Menu to the first verse, 'In the beginning God created the heaven and the earth,' to evince this point beyond dispute.

'This universe existed only in the first divine idea yet unexpanded, as if involved in darkness, imperceptible, undefinable, undiscoverable by reason, and undiscovered by revelation, as if it were wholly immersed in sleep;

'Then the sole self-existing power, himself undiscerned, but making this world discernible, with five elements and other principles of nature, appeared with undiminished glory, expanding his idea, or dispelling the gloom.

'He, whom the mind alone can perceive, whose essence eludes the external organs, who has no visible parts, who exists from eternity, even he, the soul of all beings, whom no being can comprehend, shone forth in person.' P. V.

It is not necessary to employ much time in a disquisition respecting the æra or the authority of either account. A few general observations may elucidate the subject. The ordinances of Menu are carried, with some probability, beyond the period of the birth of Moses; but they are known to have been delivered orally, and were probably not committed to writing before the period of Callua Bhatta, whose commen-

tary is deservedly celebrated. On the contrary, the Mosaic books, collected only a short time prior to the building of the temple, had been preserved with a religious reverence from the days of Moses, by whom the principal parts were probably committed to writing; and, though they were perhaps in the unconnected state of fragments, as Eichorn has suggested, yet, as, under the care of successive high priests, they seem to have been regularly read, and regarded with pious veneration, interpolation was improbable or impossible. Whatever becomes therefore of the antiquity of each work, the purity of the Pentateuch cannot reasonably be doubted. The whole of the second chapter is an allegorical explanation of some parts of the first, apparently of a different æra; and the occasional inconsistency is not so great as to invalidate either. The first chapter, with a rapid sublimity, giving years or ages as days, speaks of God creating all animals male and female; the second, bringing the more important (at least the more important to the human race) within the comprehension of mankind, exhibits an allegorical explanation of the means by which some parts were effected. If we consider the second chapter as of a later date, and of human composition, it will not invalidate the divine origin of the first, and of the greater part of the Pentateuch.

If we pursue the comparison in a political view, we shall find that the laws of Menu are far inferior, in spirit, justice, and humanity, to the Mosaic code. The union of despotism and priestcraft, checking indeed each other, but combining in a system of oppression, has nothing parallel with the Mosaic dispensation, which contains many arrangements not perhaps suitable to the modern state of society, but adapted to the persons for whom it was designed, and to the customs which it was intended to correct or regulate. The system of rewards and punishments was to be the subject of a future revelation; but even this was not wholly concealed from the modern Jews, we mean those who immediately preceded our Saviour. A future state is clearly pointed out in their later writings.

From these remarks on the advertisement we pass to the body of the work.

'I. Historical Remarks on the Coast of Malabar. With some Description of the Manners of its Inhabitants. By Jonathan Duncan, Esq.'

A part of this account is translated from a work in the Malabaric language, entitled Kerul Oodputte, the emerging of the country of Kerul. This is a strip of land bounded by the sea on the west, and the Sukhien mountains on the east, extending southward to Cape Comorin, evidently gained from the sea, and giving a probable origin to the legendary tale, of its being

obtained by Puresu Rama as a reward for the bramins, to atone for the blood shed in his wars against the Khetry tribe.

The political system of the last rajahs of this country was developed about one thousand years since; and, before the expedition of Vasco de Gama, the Nestorians had settled and planted Christianity in this part of India. The account of the customs of the inhabitants of Malabar is curious, and is translated from the description of Zeirreddin Mukhdom, an ally of the Indian princes in their wars.

The author from whom Mr. Duncan copies mentions the commerce of pepper and ginger as the cause of the Portuguese settlements; and to the commercial jealousy which arose between that nation and the Mohammedan traders, he attributes the various wars afterwards excited between the Mohammedans and Zamorins on one side, and the rajah of Cochin, assisted by his European allies, on the other. The Mohammedan author complains heavily of the oppressions of the Christians; and his account is illustrated by (though in some degree contrasted with) that of Cæsar Fredericke, who travelled about the period at which Zeirreddin's narrative closes. The Dutch succeeded the Portuguese; and the history proceeds without any very remarkable events till the year 1765, when Hyder Ali first appeared in this part of the coast. Those who read the following extract may perhaps consider the late events as a kind of retributive justice; at least it is curious to retrace the first appearance of an actor once so celebrated. The description was given to Mr. Duncan by the present Zamorin.

" In the Malabar year 941, A. D. 1765-6, Hyder Ali Khan came with an army of fifty thousand men into Mulyalum, or Mullewar, (both terms meaning the Malabar country), and waged war with my maternal uncle; and having defeated him, took possession of his dominion. My uncle sent a vakeel (or ambassador) to Hyder Ali Khan, to request that his country might be restored to him, and agreed to pay any tribute which might be settled. Hyder gave a very favourable reception to the ambassador, but informed him, that, as he could not place entire reliance on his word, he proposed himself to depute two persons, by name Sree Newaus Rao and Mookut Rao, to the rajah, to communicate his views; adding, that the rajah might trust to his honour, and go to meet him, when he would settle with him the terms that might be concerted between them. The vakeel came back with Hyder's men to the late rajah, and informed him of what had passed; whereupon the rajah intimated his apprehensions of Hyder, whom he spoke of as a man of a quarrelsome disposition, and who had disgraced many persons of high rank, and who would probably be disposed to inflict some mark of disgrace upon him also; wherefore he (the rajah) declared, that he would place his reliance not so much on Hyder, as upon the assurances

from his two agents, who, being both bráhmens, he would, on their swearing by their bráhmenical threads, by the salgram, (a stone sacred among the Hindus), and by their swords, that he should return in safety, consent to accompany them, to have an interview with Hyder; to all which they agreed; and as Hyder's army was at Toorshery, the rajah, my uncle, went with Sree Newaus Rao and Mookut Rao to meet Hyder, who advanced to Coorumnar, where the meeting took place.

"During the interview, they conversed about the country: but Hyder soon broke off the conference, by demanding of the rajah a crore of gold mohurs; upon which the latter assured him, if he were to sell the whole of the Calicut country, he could not get near that sum for it; but that he would deliver the whole of his treasure, and other property, and pay him as much as was in his power: yet Hyder was not satisfied with this offer, but caused the rajah to be seized, and imprisoned; and sent him under a guard of five hundred horse, and two thousand infantry, to the fort of Calicut; and the rajah was confined in his own house without food, and was strictly prohibited from performing the ceremonies of his religion; and as he thought that Hyder might inflict some further disgrace upon him, either by causing him to be hanged, or blown from a gun, the rajah set fire to the house with his own hand, and was consumed in it.' P. 30.

The rest of Hyder's conduct was equally violent and treacherous; but, having traced the first appearance of the meteor, we may now contemplate its extinction.

'II. An Account of two Fakeers, with their Portraits. By Jonathan Duncan, Esq.'

The absurdity of that superstition which can believe that pain inflicted on ourselves must be pleasing to the deity, is strongly exposed by the practice of the Indian fakeers. The first of these, Praun Poory, is a sunyassy, called *Oordhbahu* from holding his hands constantly above his head. He withdrew from his father's house at the age of nine years, between the years 1751 and 1756. Coming to Allahabad, at a meeting of pilgrims, he commenced fakeer, adopting his present discipline; the first operation of which he represents as very painful, and as requiring a previous course of abstinence.—The following passages are, on more than one account, curious. The second relates to the sources of the Ganges and Burampooter.

'From Jaggernauth our traveller returned by nearly the same route to Ramisher, whence he passed over into Silan, or Ceylon, and proceeded to its capital, which some, he observes, call Khundi, (Candi), and others Noora; but that Khundi Maha Rauje is the prince's designation; and that further on he arrived at Catlgang, on a river called the Manic Gunga, where there is a temple of Car-

tica, or Carticeyà, the son of Mahadeo, to which he paid his respects, and then went on to visit the Sreepud, or, "The Divine Foot," situated upon a mountain of extraordinary height; and on one part of which there is also (according to this fakeer's description) an extensive miry cavity, called the Bhoput Tank, and which bears also the name of the Tank of Ravan, or Raban, (the *b* and *v* being pronounced indifferently in various parts of India), one of the former kings of this island, well known in the Hindu legends for his wars with Rama, and from whom this tapu, or island, may probably have received its ancient appellation of Taprobane, (i. e. the isle of Raban.) But, however this may be, our traveller states, that, leaving this tank, he proceeded on to a station called Seeta Koond, (where Rama placed his wife Seeta, on the occasion of his war with her ravisher Ravan), and then reached at length to the Sreepud, on a most extensive table or flat, where there is (he observes) a bungalow built over the print of the divine foot; after worshipping which, he returned by the same route.' P. 39.

"Its circumference (i. e. of the lake of Maun Surwur) is of six days journey, and around it are twenty or five-and-twenty goumaris, or religious stations or temples, and the habitations of the people called Dowki, whose dress is like that of the Thibetians. The Maun Surwur is one lake; but in the middle of it there arises, as it were, a partition wall; and the northern part is called Maun Surwur, and the southern Lunkadh, or Lunkdeh. From the Maun Surwur part issues one river, and from the Lunkadh part two rivers: the first is called Bráhma, where Puresram making Tupisya, the Bráhmaputra issued out, and took its course to the eastward; and of the two streams that issue from the Lunkadh, one is called the Surju, being the same which flows by Ayóddyà, or Oude; and the other is called Sutroodra, (or, in the Puránas, Shutudru, and vulgarly the Sutluje,) which flows into the Punjaub country; and two days journey west from the Maun Surwur is the large town of Teree Ládac, the former rajahs of which were Hindus, but have now become Mahommedans. The inhabitants there are like unto the Thibetians. Proceeding from Ládac, seven days journey to the southward, there is a mountain called Cailasa Cungri, (cungur meaning a peak,) which is exceedingly lofty; and on its summit there is a bhowjputr or bhoorjputr tree, from the root of which sprouts or gushes a small stream, which the people say is the source of the Ganges, and that it comes from Vaicont'ha, or heaven, as is also related in the Puránas; although this source appears to the sight to flow from the spot where grows this bhowjputr tree, which is at an ascent of some miles: and yet above this there is a still loftier summit, whither no one goes: but I have heard that on that uppermost pinnacle there is a fountain or cavity, to which a Jogui somehow penetrated; who, having immersed his little finger in it,

it became petrified. At four days journey from Cailaſa Cungri is a mountain called Bráhmadanda, or Bráhma's ſtaff, in which is the ſource of the Aliknundra Ganga; and five or ſix days journey to the ſouth of that are ſituated on the mountains the temples dedicated to Cedara, or Kedarnauth and Budranauth; and from theſe hills flow the ſtreams called the Kedar Ganga and Sheo Ganga; the confluxes of which, as well as of the Aliknundra, with the main ſtream of the Ganges, take place near Kernpraug and Deopraug, in the vicinity of Serinagur; whence they flow on in a united ſtream, which iſſues into the plains of Hinduſtan at the Hurdewar." P. 44.

Purkaſamund, the Regulus of India, voluntarily reclines on a ſoft ſopha of ſharp iron ſpikes, called ſer-ſeja. This fakeer was a devotee from the age of ten years, and accuſtomed to ſleep on thorns and pebbles. He then retired to a cell where vermin, for twelve years, gnawed his fleſh, and in that interval his bed was prepared at his expreſs demand. On this, for four months in winter, he made jel-ſeja (that is, night and day, water is dropped on his head); and during the remainder of the time (thirty-five years in all) he has continued to recline on it. Fakeers are maintained at the public expenſe, but their luxuries are few; and perhaps their abſtinence enables them to endure theſe tortures with little injury. The jel-ſeja, for inſtance, might have checked the fever and irritation of numerous wounds.

'III. Enumeration of Indian Claſſes. By H. T. Colebrooke, Eſq.'

The ſeparation of claſſes, and the profeſſions to which each claſs is confined, form the moſt ſingular of Indian cuſtoms. It is not however true, that theſe are immutably united. In circumſtances of diſtreſs, the higher claſſes may practiſe ſubordinate profeſſions; and to mixed claſſes every profeſſion is apparently open. Intermarriages are regulated with great care; and the Hindoo is as cautious in this reſpect as the German baron of his thirty quarterings. The minute details of this article would not be generally intereſting.

'IV. Some Account of the Sculptures at Mahabalipoorum; uſually called the Seven Pagodas. By J. Goldingham, Eſq.'

Theſe ſculptures are, in many reſpects, curious, and we wiſh that the inſcriptions could be tranſlated. The frequent occurrence of the lingam marks the early veneration of the eaſtern tribes for the plaſtic generative power, borrowed by the Greeks, and turned from the venerable object of original worſhip to a licentious and leſs metaphorical ſyſtem. The ſingam is ſuppoſed to be the lion, but appears not to be a very characteriſtic reſemblance of that animal. Perhaps it is a metaphorical one; and, from the reſemblance of the ſound, it

seems to denote the Dea Mater. The Cybele of the Greeks, it may be observed, was drawn by lions. The perseverance of the artists in finishing and adorning these structures is considerable, but not astonishing, as granite, when dug from the earth, is comparatively soft, and, in rude countries where there is little leisure for useless labour, granitic columns are often found with figures and dates sculptured on them.

' East of the village, and washed by the sea, which, perhaps, would have entirely demolished it before now, but for a defence of large stones in front, is a pagoda of stone, and containing the lingam, was dedicated to Síva. Besides the usual figures within, one of a gigantic stature is observed stretched out on the ground, and represented as secured in that position. This the bráhmens tell you was designed for a rajah who was thus secured by Vishnu; probably alluding to a prince of the Vishnu cast having conquered the country, and taken its prince. The surf here breaks far out over, as the bráhmens inform you, the ruins of the city, which was incredibly large and magnificent. Many of the masses of stone near the shore appear to have been wrought. A bráhmen, about fifty years of age, a native of the place, whom I have had an opportunity of conversing with since my arrival at Madras, informed me, his grandfather had frequently mentioned having seen the gilt tops of five pagodas in the surf, no longer visible. In the account of this place by Mr. William Chambers, in the first volume of the Asiatic Researches, we find mention of a brick pagoda, dedicated to Síva, and washed by the sea; this is no longer visible; but as the bráhmens have no recollection of such a structure, and as Mr. Chambers wrote from memory, I am inclined to think the pagoda of stone mentioned above to be the one he means. However, it appears from good authorities, that the sea on this part of the coast is encroaching by very slow, but no less certain steps, and will perhaps in a lapse of ages entirely hide these magnificent ruins.' P. 72.

' The bráhmen before mentioned informed me, that their Puránas contained no account of any of the structures here described, except the stone pagodas near the sea, and the pagodas of brick at the village, built by the Dherma rajah, and his brothers: he, however, gave me the following traditional account: that a northern prince (perhaps one of the conquerors) about one thousand years ago, was desirous of having a great work executed, but the Hindu sculptors and masons refused to execute it on the terms he offered: attempting force I suppose, they, in number about four thousand, fled with their effects from his country hither, where they resided four or five years, and in this interval executed these magnificent works. The prince at length discovering them, prevailed on them to return, which they did, leaving the works unfinished as they appear at present.

'To those who know the nature of these people, this account will not appear improbable. At present we sometimes hear of all the individuals of a particular branch of trade deserting their houses, because the hand of power has treated them somewhat roughly; and we observe like circumstances continually in miniature. Why the bráhmens resident on the spot keep this account secret I cannot determine; but am led to suppose they have an idea, the more they can envelope the place in mystery, the more people will be tempted to visit and investigate, by which means they profit considerably.

'The difference of style in the architecture of these structures, and those on the coast hereabouts, (with exceptions to the pagodas of brick at the village, and that of stone near the sea, both mentioned in the Puránas, and which are not different), tends to prove that the artists were not of this country; and the resemblance of some of the figures and pillars to those in the Elephanta cave, seems to indicate they were from the northward.' P. 74.

'V. Account of the Hindustanee Horometry. By John Gilchrist, Esq.'

We find it impossible to give the substance of this curious article in shorter expressions than those of the author, or without the assistance of the plate. The horometry of Hindostan is very imperfect, and seems by no means to have kept pace with the improvements of the Hindus in astronomy. It is apparently the early division of a race not highly refined or deeply instructed; and as it is more accurate when nearer the equator, it was probably formed within the tropics.

'VI. On Indian Weights and Measures. By H. T. Colebrooke, Esq.'

A minute division of weights and measures, far below what even the most precious substance may require, is a visionary refinement, neither connected with extreme civilisation, nor with the scarcity of the most useful substances. To sell, for instance, a grain, or the thousandth part of the weight of a single black mustard seed, could never be necessary, for it would be useless; and the most refined civilisation could not fritter away the necessaries of life, or render so minute a subdivision of its luxuries expedient. We know that light has no weight or power independent of its velocity; yet the smallest sensible quantity of light is supposed to be divided into thirty atoms; and the *black* mustard seed, which is stated only as $\frac{1}{24}$ part of the weight of a barley-corn, is supposed to contain 15.480 of these atoms. The gunja or ractica is the general medium of comparison for other weights, and is supposed equal to four grains of rice in the husk, or as many small barley-corns. In the same way measures of space are divided into the minutest parts: the smallest grain of sand, in one of the Purána measures, is divided into 512 atoms, or subdivisions of

the minutest ray of light; and, in the Vridda Menu, the smallest poppy seed is thought to contain as many parts, under a different denomination. In astronomy, the division is equally minute. Our second is divided into sixty-eight parts.

'VII. Of the City of Pegue, and the Temple of Shoemadoo Praw. By Captain Michael Symes.'

We have reason to expect from captain Symes a full account of this eastern district; and in the mean time the present description is a favourable specimen of the accuracy with which he has observed, and the clearness with which he describes. He surveys, in this paper, only the remains of what was once an extensive and opulent city, carried by assault, and desolated by Alompraw in 1757. The pagodas or praws only escaped the fury of the conquerors; and that which is noticed in the present article has alone been repaired. It is remarkable that the invader should be honoured with the title which is given to the sacred structure: we select the note that explains the appellation.

'Shoe is the Birman word for golden; and there can be little doubt that Madao is a corruption of the Hindu Maha Deva or Deo. I could not learn from the Birmans the origin or etymology of the term; but it was explained to me as importing a promontory that overlooked land and water. Praw signifies Lord, and is always annexed to the name of a sacred building. It is likewise a sovereign and sacerdotal title; and frequently used by an inferior when addressing his superior. The analogy between the Birmans and the ancient Egyptians, in the application of this term, as well as in many other instances, is highly deserving notice.

'Phrâ was the proper name under which the Egyptians first adored the sun, before it received the allegorical appellation of Osiris, or Author of Time. They likewise conferred it on their kings and priests. In the first book of Moses, chap. xli. Pharaoh gives "Joseph to wife the daughter of Potiphera, or the priest of On." In the book of Jeremiah, a king of Egypt is styled, "Pharaoh Ophra." And it is not a very improbable conjecture, that the title Pharaoh, given to successive kings of Egypt, is a corruption of the word Phra, or Praw; in its original sense signifying the sun, and applied to the sovereign and the priesthood, as the representatives on earth of that splendid luminary.' P. 115.

'This extraordinary edifice is built on a double terrace, one raised upon another. The lower and greater terrace is about ten feet above the natural level of the ground. It is quadrangular. The upper and lesser terrace is of a like shape, raised about twenty feet above the lower terrace, or thirty above the level of the country. I judged a side of the lower terrace to be 1391 feet, of the upper 684. The walls that sustained the sides of the terraces, both upper and

lower, are in a ſtate of ruin. They were formerly covered with plaiſter, wrought into various figures. The area of the lower is ſtrewed with the fragments of ſmall decayed buildings; but the upper is kept free from filth, and in tolerable good order. There is a ſtrong preſumption that the fortreſs is coeval with this building; as the earth of which the terraces are compoſed, appears to have been taken from the ditch; there being no other excavation in the city, or its neighbourhood, that could have afforded a tenth part of the quantity.

'These terraces are aſcended by flights of ſtone ſteps, broken and neglected. On each ſide are dwellings of the rahaans, or prieſts, raiſed on timbers four or five feet from the ground. Their houſes conſiſt only of a ſingle hall. The wooden pillars that ſupport them are turned with neatneſs. The roof is of tile, and the ſides of ſheathing-boards. There are a number of bare benches in every houſe, on which the rahaans ſleep. We ſaw no furniture.

'Shoemadoo is a pyramid, compoſed of brick and plaiſter, with fine ſhell mortar, without excavation or aperture of any ſort; octagonal at the baſe, and ſpiral at top. Each ſide of the baſe meaſures 162 feet. This immenſe breadth diminiſhes abruptly; and a ſimilar building has not unaptly been compared in ſhape to a large ſpeaking trumpet.

'Six feet from the ground there is a wide ledge, which ſurrounds the baſe of the building; on the plane of which are fifty-ſeven ſmall ſpires, of equal ſize, and equidiſtant. One of them meaſured twenty-ſeven feet in height, and forty in circumference at the bottom. On a higher ledge there is another row, conſiſting of fifty-three ſpires, of ſimilar ſhape and meaſurement. A great variety of mouldings encircles the building; and ornaments, ſomewhat reſembling the fleur de lys, ſurround what may be called the baſe of the ſpire. Circular mouldings likewiſe gird this part to a conſiderable height; above which there are ornaments in ſtucco, not unlike the leaves of a Corinthian capital; and the whole is crowned by a tee, or umbrella of open iron-work, from which riſes an iron rod with a gilded pennant.

'The tee, or umbrella, is to be ſeen on every ſacred building in repair, that is of a ſpiral form. The raiſing and conſecration of this laſt and indiſpenſible appendage, is an act of high religious ſolemnity, and a ſeaſon of feſtivity and relaxation.' P. 116.

The judicious and liberal policy of the ſucceſſor of the merciless conqueror had permitted the natives to rebuild the city, and this their chief temple. He has made it alſo the ſeat of the ſubordinate governor; and, except in not filling places of truſt or profit, has placed his new ſubjects on the ſame footing with the Birmans. The houſes are compoſed of wood, and covered with a lighter material of the ſame kind; and conſequently fires are extenſively deſtructive; yet this mode of building is

common in the east, and not unsuitable to the superior ranks. Fires are carefully guarded against; and near every house is a bamboo pole to which a hook is fixed to pull down the house which may be accidentally in flames. Pegue once filled a square, each side of which was a mile and a half in extent. A small part of this quadrangle is now rebuilt. Tradition carries back the foundation of the temple between two and three thousand years; but the account is so debased by fiction, as to deserve no credit.

'VIII. Description of the Tree called, by the Burmas, Launzan. By Francis Buchanan, Esq. M.D.'

The seeds of this tree grow in the northern mountains of Ava, and are very oily. It is probable that their oil may render them highly useful; but the plants procured by Dr. Buchanan, who accompanied the deputation to Ava, did not long live. The description of the tree is subjoined. It most nearly approaches, in habit, Dr. Roxburgh's genus tsaroo mamady, and is not very distant in appearance from the chitraca of that botanist.

'IX. Specimen of the Language of the People inhabiting the Hills in the Vicinity of Bhagulpoor. By Major R. E. Roberts.'

Major Roberts supplies the deficiency in lieutenant Shaw's description of these tribes, by adding a specimen of their language. They have no written character, but convey messages by a kind of quipos. The chief, for instance, who promised to wait on the English commander in four days, sent a straw with four knots on it.

'X. An Account of the Discovery of two Urns in the Vicinity of Benares. By Jonathan Duncan, Esq.'

These urns were found, in 1794, by men who were digging for stones from a subterraneous building of great antiquity near Benares. It has been supposed that this was only a temporary deposit till the remains could be thrown into the Ganges—an opportunity which never occurred. Mr. Duncan more justly supposes these reliques to belong to one of the worshippers of Budha, who never committed their dead to the sacred river. A small statue of Budha found near the spot supports this conjecture; but we wish to know whether the bones appeared to have ever undergone the action of fire: from the small quantity of human remains, we imagine that this was the case.

'XI. Account of some Ancient Inscriptions.'

These inscriptions were found near Ellura, on the western side of India, and were deciphered by lieutenant Wilford, who fortunately procured a book containing many of the ancient alphabets. If the legend be true, it is a curious one: we select it with a specimen of the translations,

'The numbers I. III. IV. and V. relate to the wanderings of Yudishtira and the Pandovas through forests and uninhabited places. They were precluded, by agreement, from conversing with mankind; but their friends and relations, Vidura and Vyása, contrived to convey to them such intelligence and information as they deemed necessary for their safety. This they did by writing short and obscure sentences on rocks or stones in the wilderness, and in characters previously agreed upon betwixt them. Vyása is the supposed author of the Puránas.

'No. I. Consists of four distinct parts, which are to be read separately. In the first part, either Vidura or Vyása informs Yudishtira of the hostile intentions of Duryodhen.

"From what I have seen of him (Duryodhen), and after having fully considered (the whole tenor of his conduct), I am satisfied that he is a wicked man. Keep thyself concealed, O chief of the illustrious!"

'In the second part of No. I.

"Having first broken the stone (that closes thy cave) come here secretly, old man, that thou mayest obtain the object of thy desire. Thy sufferings vex me sore."

'In the 3d part of No. I.

"O, most unfortunate, the wicked is come."

'In the fourth part of No. I.

'Yudishtira and his followers being exhausted with their sufferings, made overtures of peace through Vidura and Vyása. They had at first some hope of success, when suddenly an end was put to the negociations, and affairs took another turn. This piece of intelligence they conveyed to Yudishtira in the following manner:

'4th. "Another word."

'This expression, is an adverbial form, is still in use to express the same thing.' P. 136.

'XII. Observations on the Alphabetic System of the Language of Awa and Rac'hain. By Captain John Towers.'

The languages of Ava and Aracan are of great importance, as these countries lie in the intermediate spot between Hindostan and China; and, if the inhabitants of the latter were derived from the former, we may here find the shades of difference, which, at a greater distance, are more striking. The language of Siam is also nearly the same; but, unfortunately, no standard of orthography, and no trace of grammatical arrangement, are to be found in it. Attention and perseverance must supply the defects.

'Every writing that has hitherto come under observation, has been full of the grossest inaccuracies; even those stamped by the highest authority; such as official papers from the king of Ava to our government. How far the Palit, or sacred language, in which

their religious ordinances are written, may be exempted from this remark, it is impoſſible to ſay. The prieſts are almoſt the only people converſant in it, and few even among them are celebrated for the accuracy and extent of their knowledge. Between Rámu and Iſlámabàd, only one perſon has been heard of, and to him acceſs has not hitherto been obtainable. Enquiry ſeems to favour an opinion, that an acquaintance with both languages is abſolutely neceſſary to effect the important purpoſes that at preſent introduce themſelves to our notice, and which are to prove the inhabitants of Siam, Ava, and Aracan, to be one and the ſame people in language, manners, laws, and religion; and features of the ſtrongeſt reſemblance between them and thoſe of Aſam, Népal, and Tibet; and eventually to add another link to the chain of general knowledge, by furniſhing materials for filling up the interval that ſeems at preſent to ſeparate the Hindus from the Chineſe.' P. 156.

(To be continued.)

Communications to the Board of Agriculture; on Subjects relative to the Huſbandry and internal Improvement of the Country. 2 *Vols.* 4*to. Vol. I.* 1*l.* 13*s. Vol. II.* 16*s. Boards.* Robinſons.

ALL who have attentively conſidered the importance of agriculture, and the means of its improvement, muſt have perceived the neceſſity of collecting the indigeſted maſs of experimental facts, which have been gradually accumulating for a conſiderable time, into ſyſtematic order and arrangement, that they may be rendered more completely applicable to different purpoſes of utility. In this buſineſs the county reports, ſo far as they have gone, have done much. They have ſhown us the true ſtate of various agricultural practices, and have brought others to our view that had been concealed by the locality of their nature, and the circumſtances under which they were diſcovered. Much, however, ſtill remains to be effected in this way, before the bulky materials can be reduced into that clear and exact order which is neceſſary for the advancement of huſbandry. To facilitate the accompliſhment of ſo deſirable an object, materials have been collected from various quarters on many detached ſubjects by the board of agriculture, which are here placed under their proper heads, and preſented to the public in a form that has utility to recommend it.

Before we proceed to the examination of the more uſeful parts of theſe communications, we may obſerve, that the hiſtory

of thoſe circumſtances which led to the eſtabliſhment of the board, and the ſtatements of its progreſſive advancement, however highly we may approve the inſtitution, and the exertions of the patriotic baronet in promoting it, more properly belong to thoſe periodical works that record the tranſactions of the year than to ſuch a publication as that which is now before us. As they ſtand at preſent, they occupy a portion much larger than was requiſite for details that muſt have been regiſtered in other publications.

However imperfect the conſtruction and arrangement of farm-houſes, offices, and other buildings, may in general be, no one who has been engaged in the management of rural affairs can be ignorant of the advantages that reſult from the judicious diſtribution of ſuch conveniencies. Without method, or due attention to the buſineſs that is to be conducted in ſuch buildings, much loſs muſt be ſuſtained in time, labour, and the waſte of food, as well as in what relates to the management of the dunghill; a matter of ſerious importance in moſt ſituations. The firſt part of this volume offers many uſeful hints and directions on theſe different ſubjects. Mr. Beatſon, the writer of the firſt communication, aſſerts that the conſtruction of farm-buildings may, for the moſt part, be accompliſhed at much leſs expenſe than is commonly ſuppoſed; a point in which we have ſtrong grounds for agreeing with him. His calculation is this:

'Allowing for circumſtances and the variation of prices, I am,' he ſays, 'fully perſuaded by the obſervations I have made in different parts of the kingdom, that in general one year's rent of the farm, if not under 70l. (or at moſt two) is amply ſufficient for building every accommodation neceſſary upon that farm, excluſive of the dwelling-houſe: and that one year's rent is enough to build a dwelling-houſe, on all farms not exceeding 400l. a year (in many ſituations leſs may do). And laſtly, that 500l. are ſufficient for a dwelling-houſe, and 1000l. for offices on a farm of any extent.' P. 2.

On the conſtruction and means of proportioning farm-houſes and offices, many uſeful hints are offered, ſome of which may be laid before the reader. It is obſerved that

'Farm buildings ſhould be proportioned and conſtructed according to the ſize and produce of the farm; which, in ſettling their dimenſions and arrangement, muſt be particularly taken into conſideration. If, for example, the farm is adapted entirely to grazing, very few buildings will be neceſſary, except ſome ſheds, and theſe will be in uſe chiefly during the winter ſeaſon, temporary ones being often erected in the fields for the ſummer. On farms where

cattle are housed only in winter, or in such farms where more buildings are used in winter than in summer, a great expense in roofing may be saved in cattle sheds, by erecting walls only, or having pillars or posts placed and framed in such a manner as to support hay-ricks, peas, or any other sort of ricks that are not intended to be taken down till the spring or summer. This will not only answer the purpose of an excellent warm roof, but will be a very good situation for building such ricks. If, however, the farm is entirely for grazing, as before supposed, there may not be a sufficiency of ricks, unless of the fodder for the cattle, to make such temporary roofs. In that case the sheds must of course have permanent ones, which may be of the cheapest construction. Or if there should be a sufficient number of boards about the farm, as is sometimes the case, they may be laid loosely on, to serve as a roof to the sheds, till wanted for other purposes.

'A dairy farm will require a different sort of accommodations, being in general composed partly of the grazing and partly of the arable kind. The cow-houses must be proportioned to the number of cows usually kept, with every other accommodation for carrying on the dairy business, whether as a cheese or butter farm. Small stables and a small barn are sufficient for such a farm. But in an arable or corn farm, which generally partakes of both the other sorts, the buildings must be more numerous, and suited in some respect to all these different purposes. The stables, in proportion to the number of horses or cattle requisite for labouring the farm. The cow-houses and feeding-houses, according to the number of cows generally kept, and cattle fed. The barn and granary, according to the extent of arable land; together with all the other usual accommodations for breeding young horses or cattle, for hogs, poultry, &c. all which must be particularly considered of while planning the farm offices.

'Since the invention of thrashing-mills, [*threshing-mills*] a most material alteration may be made in the construction of farm buildings, particularly in barns. The tedious and laborious operation of thrashing with the flail, made it necessary to have the barn large enough to hold a great quantity of corn in the straw, or at least to contain a whole stack at once; and besides, to have it so lofty as to give sufficient height for raising the flail. This is by no means necessary where there is a thrashing-mill; for as the mill, if properly constructed, will thrash the corn as fast as taken in, it is unnecessary to throw in the whole stack at once; and what remains of it in the rick-yard, if any, may be covered with a tarpawling, or painted canvas for that purpose; a thing that every farmer ought to have, being of essential use either in case of a sudden shower in harvest when building a stack or hay-rick, or of leaving one unfinished at night, or any other time.' P. 3.

Much has been said by persons who have, perhaps, only

bestowed a cursory attention upon the subject, of the advantages of having the farm-houses contiguous to the offices. We believe, with the author of this paper, however, that they are better at some distance; they are certainly more pleasant, and more conducive to the health of their inhabitants, where such a mode of arrangement is adopted, and if the space which separates them be not too great for the convenient performance of the different operations that may be necessary, no disadvantage can be produced. In the plans annexed, the writer appears to have properly had in view simplicity, cheapness, and convenience.

The observations on the general unnecessary size of barns, and the benefits arising from the stacking of grain, are for the most part just; but we believe that Mr. Beatson knows little of littering animals with the thatch from the stack-yards, if he can suppose it to go as far, and 'answer equally well,' as fresh straw. We are certain that the straw, from being exposed to the weather, soon becomes so tender as to be of little or no value for such purposes. In most districts too this article is more valuable than he seems to apprehend.

In what is here advanced with respect to the construction of granaries, and other places for the preservation of corn, we observe little that is new. The plans that are offered, however, are such as deserve the notice of those who have large farms.

To the construction of stables the writer has paid great attention. He justly reprobates the absurd practice that has been so long followed, of giving stalls so much slope in paving them. There are many reasons for condemning the practice; but those on which the author rests its rejection, are the following.

'For my own part I think that horses ought to stand in a stable as nearly on a level as possible; nor can there be any reason whatever to the contrary, unless that of carrying off the moisture; which I hope to shew may be much more effectually done by paving the stalls level, than in the common way.

'A horse's feet are of so much importance to his master, that no pains should be spared to keep them in the best order, and free from every blemish or complaint, for the least flaw, or the least injury there, may render him incapable of work, perhaps altogether useless.

'Nothing can be worse for a horse's heels than to make him stand always on a slope or declivity. It not only occasions grease, cracks, scratches, &c. but by keeping the tendons and sinews of his pastern joints in a constant state of extension, causes a stiffness in those joints, which must prevent him the free use of them. Nor can a horse rest so easily on a slope as on a level.' P. 20.

In the construction of these offices, as well as cow-houses,

and the other buildings connected with them, we find a steady endeavour to correct and remove a slovenly and wasteful custom that has long been suffered to disgrace the farm-yard system of various districts, that of permitting the liquor produced in such places to run away and be lost. In our author's plans this is effectually guarded against by suitable drains and reservoirs.

Some valuable plans are suggested for improvements in the smaller order of farm-buildings, by which time and labour may be considerably abridged; and the paper is concluded by a few observations on situation and other circumstances. Some of these are judicious, and demand the regard of those who are in the least anxious to promote the improvement of rural œconomy.

Mr. Hunt's Memoir, and Mr. Croker's Essay, contain much interesting matter on the same subjects; but their range is more confined, and their plans principally proceed on the principle of overlooking the business of the farm-yards and offices from the house. Such schemes, however desirable they may be, can very seldom be fully put in execution; and if they could, the advantages derived from them would probably be less than is commonly supposed; for where there is a dereliction of principle in the servant, no care of the master, no form, construction, or situation of his buildings, can, we believe, prevent him from being cheated and plundered.

The communication on *corn-stands* is useful; but the remarks are not wholly new. Circular stands have been long employed for the purpose of stacking and preserving grain in different parts of the kingdom.

The second part brings to our view the situation of labourers in husbandry, and the necessity of providing cottages, and a small portion of land, in order to render them more comfortable. The information contained in the letter of the earl of Winchelsea, and in lord Brownlow's answers to different queries, is of the most satisfactory kind. It confirms what has been long supposed by those who have paid the greatest attention to the subject, that nothing is so advantageous to this valuable class of men, and at the same time so useful to the owners of land, as that of their having land for the purpose of keeping a cow, or for cultivating as a garden. But let us hear the earl.

'By means of these advantages, the labourers and their families live better, and are consequently more fit to endure labour; it makes them more contented, and more attached to their situation, and it gives them a sort of independence, which makes them set a higher value upon their character. In the neighbourhood in which I live, men so circumstanced are almost always considered as the

most to be depended on and trusted: the possessing a little property certainly gives a spur to industry; as a proof of this, it has almost always happened to me, that when a labourer has obtained a cow, and land sufficient to maintain her, the first thing he has thought of, has been, how he could save money enough to buy another; and I have almost always had applications for more land from those people so circumstanced. There are several labourers in my neighbourhood, who have got on in that manner, till they now keep two, three, and some four cows, and yet are amongst the hardest working men in the country, and the best labourers. I believe there are from seventy to eighty labourers upon my estate in Rutland, who keep from one to four cows each; and I have always heard that they are hard working industrious men; they manage their land well, and always pay their rent.' P. 77.

These facts clearly show the absurdity of an opinion that has been hastily adopted, and inconsiderately maintained, that the permitting of labourers to possess land, rendered them less industrious, and less attentive to the concerns of the farmer. The contrary is obviously the case, and must indeed be so, from the interest which they feel, as well as the local attachment which is engendered by such means.

The answers of lord Brownlow and Mr. Crutchley obviate some objections that have been made to this sort of cottage systems, and exhibit the nature and advantages of it with great clearness and accuracy.

The observations and reflexions of Mr. Holland and Mr. Beatson on the construction of cottages are interesting in many respects, and furnish the builder with much necessary information. The designs that accompany them are in general recommended by their utility and convenience. Those of Mr. Croker are upon a smaller scale, but are not, perhaps, less deserving of the notice of those who are engaged in the erection of such buildings.

The third part is wholly taken up with the very important business of roads. Mess. Beatson, Wright, Jessop, Holt, Wilkes, Erskine, and Ellis, have brought to our view a large portion of useful matter on this imperfectly understood and generally ill-executed employment. The range of the first writer is extensive; and he fairly remarks that

'While the present turnpike-laws remain in force, and the common mode is practised of choosing surveyors annually, or by rotation, without the smallest regard to abilities or experience, it cannot be expected the public convenience will be so much attended to as it ought to be; neither is it to be expected, that the generality of surveyors, so chosen, can know the proper directions to give, in making or repairing roads, nor the proper manner of making

estimates, so as either to conclude an agreement with an artful contractor, or to form a correct judgement of such proposals as may be made.

'From these disadvantages, it is inconceivable the loss that may be occasioned, or the mischief that may be done, by an ignorant and inexperienced surveyor.' P. 122.

Another reason which, he conceives, operates against the proper management of roads, is the great influence of country gentlemen. He therefore suggests that

'there should be a controlling power over the measures proposed by country gentlemen respecting turnpike roads: for to allow those gentlemen to decide ultimately on the laying out a new road through their own lands, or even on the distribution of the money to be expended in repairing old roads, is, in fact, making them judges in their own cause. In short, it is an object so truly important to the interests of the community at large, and of the kingdom in general, to procure the most easy, safe, and expeditious, and the least expensive intercourse with every part, either by means of the best roads, or the easiest constructed navigable canals, that it is a measure, (says he), I presume, highly deserving the attention of the legislature; and it is a field so wide and extensive, and in which there is such an immensity of business to attend to, if properly managed, that it would almost require a board for that particular purpose,—a board of roads and internal communications.—In this board might be vested the controlling power and management of all the public roads and canals in the kingdom; the letting of the tolls, or collecting the revenues arising from those roads and canals; the issuing orders for making and repairing them, and money for that purpose; and, in short, the whole power of regulating and deciding every thing respecting so important a trust. Under this board should be appointed the most able surveyors and inspectors, to each of which should be allotted a certain county or number of counties; and they might be changed annually, or triennially, from one district to another, that they may the more generally know the best practices followed in different places, and be the less liable to form intimacies or partialities. Over these district surveyors, should be a general surveyor, resident mostly with the board, but occasionally to visit different parts, as circumstances may require.

'If a plan of this nature, or something similar to it, were adopted, we should then no more hear of those numerous complaints that are so often made respecting the abuses committed in the management of turnpike-roads, and of the money levied at the toll bars; at many of which, it is said, "the money levied is more than double of what is necessary for executing, in the completest manner, the work which is often executed in a very slovenly manner, and sometimes not executed at all.' P. 123.

Such powers might properly, as is here insinuated, be vested in the 'Board of Agriculture and Internal Improvements,' being, in some measure, an object of the attention of that useful establishment.

The business of repairing roads is, in general, so shamefully neglected, and so badly performed, that a few of the remarks and suggestions contained in this valuable paper may be laid before the public. The custom of permitting roads to get much out of order before they are repaired, is equally erroneous and expensive. The author observes, that

'Where the funds will admit (and in general it would be a great saving) proper persons should be appointed in every parish or district, or to have the charge of a certain length of road, to observe frequently if any part is giving way, and to repair it immediately; and particular care should be taken to prevent water lodging in any hollow part, or in the tracks of carriages. And those hollow places or tracks should immediately be filled up with proper materials, when the water is completely drained off, but not before, as is too often the case. Sometimes such tracks may easily be effaced, without being filled up, merely by removing the sides of them; but as these sides generally consist of an earthy substance that has been thrown out by wheel carriages, it should, on no account, if of that nature, be laid again in the tracks, as that would make but a very superficial repair, and would soon be as bad as before. Nor should any large stones ever be allowed to lie on the surface of the road, or even near the surface, unless the whole breadth of it is equally hard; for, as already observed, wherever one wheel of a carriage goes over such a stone, especially if a little above the surface, the other wheel, by having the greater part of the burthen thrown upon it, will cut a deep rut directly opposite, unless that part is equally hard or firm, consequently every thing that tends to make any carriage or waggon heel more to one side than the other, should immediately be removed; and for the same reason, if any part of the track on one side is growing deeper than that on the other, it ought without delay to be filled up. These cases will happen chiefly on convex roads, or where it is the absurd practice of all waggoners and carters, to follow constantly the same track, which they could have no pretext for doing, if roads were formed and constructed as herein directed; but so bigoted are the people in many parts of the country to this foolish custom, that all the axletrees of their wheel-carriages are made exactly the same length, for the very purpose of following one another, as if it were considered a beneficial practice both for the roads and for the ease of the horses. But in my humble opinion the reverse should be the practice, and where that custom prevails the axletrees of all wheel-carriages should be made of different lengths, for the very purpose of preventing them following the same track. That is, if one parish were to have them of

a certain length, another pariſh an inch longer, another two inches longer, &c.: and perhaps it would be the beſt way to make the extreme lengths in contiguous pariſhes, ſo that the ſhorteſt ſhould be in the pariſh next the longeſt, &c.

'If the foregoing directions were rigidly attended to, and every appearance of a breach or defect at once repaired, the ſame materials when diſplaced, would very often, if properly relaid, and fit for the purpoſe, repair the part beginning to fail; whereas if neglected for ſome time, and allowed to get much out of repair, it will probably require a conſiderable additional quantity of materials, and thereby occaſion a great deal of expence that might have been ſaved.

'The ſummer ſeaſon is the beſt not only for making but for repairing roads, nor ought they on any account to be touched in winter, unleſs to give a temporary aid to ſome ſudden breach that is perhaps almoſt impaſſable, or to let off any ſtanding water, as before recommended. Yet nothing is more common than to ſee a number of labourers employed on the highways in winter, when the days are ſhort, and but a few hours labour can be obtained of them. Indeed ſo little attention is there often paid to repairing the highways, that ſometimes old infirm people are employed for this purpoſe, as if repairing roads were a ſort of trifling bye job, merely for the employment of paupers, or lame miſerable objects, who can get no other means of ſubſiſtence.' P. 147.

If the truſtees, ſurveyors, and managers of roads, were as attentive to theſe circumſtances as they *ought* to be, there would be much leſs occaſion to complain of the heavy expenſe of tolls, and the badneſs of roads, than there certainly is at preſent.

Mr. Wright's remarks 'on the public roads of the kingdom, and the means of improving them,' are moſtly pertinent and uſeful. Mr. Jeſſop's paper is not ſo much confined to roads; it extends to inland navigation, and ſhows the vaſt importance of it to commerce. In what relates to roads he chiefly draws the attention to the uſe of cylindrical broad wheels, the breaking of ſtones ſmall, and the employing of water for the purpoſe of waſhing them.

Mr. Holt makes various juſt reflexions on the advantages of good roads, and the means of making and repairing them,—on mile-ſtones, guide and guard poſts, and other objects connected with the main ſubject.

The anſwers of Mr. Wilkes to the queries put to him on the ſubject of *concave roads*, certainly prove that form to be capable of being adopted in ſome ſituations; but the experience which he ſeems to have had of that mode of conſtruction does not appear to be ſufficient to ſupport the concluſion, that it is *generally* better than other forms now in uſe.

The fourth or last part embraces a variety of foreign communications of a very useful nature.

The observations on the cultivation and uses of parsneps, as stated by the Agricultural Society of Jersey, are curious, and furnish hints for further improvement in the feeding of animals. The culture of this root is in that island conducted on a large scale, and has been known for a great length of time. The people derive such advantages from it, that,

'for fattening their cattle and pigs, they prefer it to all the known roots of both hemispheres. The cattle fed therewith yield a juicy and exquisite meat. The pork and beef of Jersey is incontestably equal, if not superior, to the best in Europe. We have observed, that the beef in summer is not equal to that in the autumn, winter, and spring periods, when they are fed with parsnips, which we attribute to the excellency of that root.

'All animals eat it with avidity, and in preference to potatoes. We are ignorant of the reason, having never made any analysis of the parsnip. It would be curious, interesting, and useful, to investigate its characteristic principles; it is certain that animals are more fond of it than any other root, and fatten more quickly. The parsnip possesses, without doubt, more nutritious juices than the potatoe. It has been proved that the latter contain eleven ounces and a half of water, and one *gros* of earthy substance, in a pound. Therefore, there only remains four ounces and five *gros* of nutritive matter. Probably the parsnip does not contain near so much watery particles: nevertheless they digest very easily in the animal's body. The cows fed with hay and parsnips during winter, yield butter of a fine yellow hue, of a saffron tinge, as excellent as if they had been in the most luxuriant pasture.' P. 211.

Whether the Jersey parsnep be different from that commonly raised in this country, or whether from the difference of climate it may be of a more saccharine quality, we are not able to decide; but we know from experiment that neither cattle nor swine are fond of eating our common parsneps. They prefer almost every root to those vegetables, and in our trials could only be made to eat them in any quantity by hunger.

The answers to the queries concerning the use of the *quercus marina*, as a manure, convey much information that is capable of more extensive application. The advantage of employing this substance in the way of compost with other vegetable or animal matters, is not confined to the Jersey farmers; it has been used in that manner by English agriculturists.

Flemish husbandry, from its general high character, from its being, in some measure, the stock on which many of our best practices are ingrafted, must be interesting; but the ob-

ſervations upon it, in abbé Mann's Memoir, are too conciſe and imperfect to be ſatisfactory. Some of the hints, however, which he has thrown out ſhould not be neglected. The anſwers of this writer, as well as thoſe of the Baron de Poederlé, are more full, and contain ſeveral curious and uſeful accounts of rural management.

M. Bertrand's experiments and obſervations on the feeding and management of rabbets, are intereſting, and ſuggeſt the utility of further attempts of the ſame kind with other animals. The communications on ſheep deſerve in a particular manner the regard of ſheep-farmers in the mountainous and hilly diſtricts, and are curious as well as intereſting in other points of view.

The correſpondence given at the cloſe of this part contains many curious facts and valuable obſervations on different ſubjects of agriculture, ſtated by perſons of high rank and conſequence in foreign countries; and the appendix diſplays the method of building in Piſa in an eaſy and perſpicuous manner.

A good index is added.

Theſe volumes, on the whole, comprehend much uſeful information on various branches of huſbandry; and the progreſs of the eſtabliſhment promiſes conſequences highly beneficial.

Memoirs of the Medical Society of London, inſtituted in the Year* 1773. *Vol. V. 8vo. 9s. 6d. Boards.* Johnſon. 1799.

IT always gives us pleaſure to mark improvements. We formerly expreſſed ſome indignation at the alloy of trifling and unintereſting matter by which the preceding volumes were diſgraced; and we are glad to obſerve the proportion leſſen, though in this volume we find ſome crude inaccurate communications, which make the whole of leſs value than half would have been. As ſome of the authors were offended by the general account of the fourth volume, we will now be more particular.

'I. Hiſtory of a Caſe of Hydrophobia. By William Gaitſkell, Surgeon.'

The caſe was fatal, and reſiſted even the uſe of oily frictions.

'II. Funeſta, Paſſionis Iliacæ, Hiſtoria; partiumque morboſarum poſt mortem Anatomia. Wickens Hodges, Chirurgus, Johan. C. Lettſom, M. D. S. D.'

The author, though aſſiſted by diſſection, is ſtill unac-

* For an account of Vol. IV. ſee our XVth Vol. New Arr. p. 208.

quainted with the nature of the disease, which was not an iliac passion, but the scirrho-contracted rectum.

'III. A Case of Polypus Uteri. By a corresponding Member of the Medical Society.'

The polypus was at first mistaken for an inverted uterus; the case may be important, as leading the practitioner to a more accurate distinction of diseases, which, by too near a resemblance, may occasion much mischief.

'IV. Of certain morbid Affections of the Uterus. By J. C. Lettsom, M. D. &c.'

This article is unimportant and uninstructive.

'V. Case of Hæmatocele, with an Account of the Efficacy of the Xanthoxylon. By John Harris, M. D. C. M. S. Kingston, Jamaica. Communicated by W. Chamberlaine, F. M. S. and Secretary to the Medical Society.'

In the case of hæmatocele, after the discharge of blood, the tunica vaginalis appearing insensible, and the ulcer ill-conditioned, the xanthoxylon was applied in powder, after the wound had been syringed with the decoction. The remedy seemed to be completely successful; and, from the appendix, it appears that we have acquired a new medicine of no small efficacy. It is certainly a powerful antiseptic, and a valuable anodyne and antispasmodic. The common name is 'the prickly yellow wood of Jamaica.'

'VI. A Case of diseased Kidneys, and Stone in the Bladder, by Thomas Erratt, Surgeon.'

The most remarkable part of this case is, that a stone was confined to the fundus of the bladder, partly inclosed in a sac, which prevented its being discovered by the sound. Had it been found, the patient's sufferings must have been increased (though perhaps shortened) by an unsuccessful attempt to extract it.

'VII. On the Application of Spirit of Wine to Burns, Scalds, &c. By Thomas Parkinson, Surgeon, at Leicester.'

The application of spirit of wine is well known: it seems to be efficacious in consequence of the cold excited by the evaporation; but, in severe burns, it must be dangerous, as it may produce mortification. Ophthalmia is relieved in the same way.

'VIII. An Account of the Lithontriptic Power observed in the Muriatic Acid. By Mr. Copland.'

Calculi greatly differ in their texture and composition; and muriatic acid may dissolve some of these, as well as, by its tonic power, correct the lithiasic habit; but it can never be a medicine of general or extensive utility. From 60 to 100 drops are to be taken three times a day.

'IX. Experiments on the external Use of Tartarised Antimony. In a Letter to J. C. Lettsom, M. D. &c. By Ben-

jamin Hutchinson, Member of the Corporation of Surgeons, London.'

There was evidently, in our author's experiments, an absorption of the emetic tartar, which produced its peculiar effects both on the skin, and on the stomach; but these effects cannot be constant, for the power and the action of the inhalants are not always equal. Hence contradictory experiments cannot be reconciled by others which succeed, as those which are again tried may fail. There is something whimsical in trying the same experiment, at *night*, on a lady and a gentleman; but the author has neglected to inform us whether they slept together. From the first lines of p. 83, we are inclined to think that this was the case.

'X. Some Account of a Species of Phthisis Pulmonalis, peculiar to Persons employed in pointing Needles in the Needle Manufacture. By James Johnstone, M. D. C. M. S. Worcester.'

The disease arises from the abraded parts of the grinding-stone, and might easily be avoided. As it is, we are unfortunately able to add one other employment to the list of those which occasion consumption.

'XI. On the Poison of Fish. By Edward Thomas, M. D. Member of the College of Physicians.'

This paper contains some new and useful information respecting the various kinds of fish, supposed to be poisonous, and some good reasons for thinking that the poison is derived from their food, and that the bad effects may be avoided by gutting and salting the fish immediately after they have been caught. In a late volume of the Journal de Physique, it is also remarked, that many of the zoophytes are poisonous, and that fish are only poisonous from eating them. The symptoms of the poison are well known in this country from the effects of muscles: in the West Indies they are more violent, though seldom fatal. Cayenne pepper is said to be a specific.

'XII. Case of Deposition of Mercury upon the Bones. By Francis Rigby Brodbelt, M. D. C. M. S.'

The person whose bones were covered with this extraordinary deposition, died with symptoms of the lues venerea, and had probably used mercury in a large quantity. Mercury in the system is so nearly in its metallic state as to be revived by any metal, and most probably by the animal fluids. The appearance of distinct globules occurred chiefly on the os hyoeides, os frontis, and sternum.

'XIII. Observations on the Wigglesworth Water. By T. Garnett, M. D. C. M. S. &c. Physician at Harrogate.'

'XIV. Observations on the Nature and Virtues of the Harrogate Waters. By T. Garnett, M. D. C. M. S. &c. Physician at Harrogate.'

The former is an hepatic water, with some fixed air and azote, resembling the Harrogate water, but with a much less proportion of salts. The new water, mentioned in the fourteenth article, under the title of St. George's Spa, contains fixed air, a small proportion of carbonat of iron, and sulphat of lime. The sulphur water, as Dr. Garnett supposed from its chemical affinity to lead, has been found highly useful in the colica pictonum.

'XV. An Account of Experiments performed with a View to ascertain the Effect of the Nitric Acid upon Iron deposited in the Stomach of an Animal. By Edward Harrison, M. D. Member of the Royal Antiquarian Society of Scotland,—formerly President of the Royal, Medical, and Royal Physical Societies, at Edinburgh,—Corresponding Member of the London Medical Society, &c.'

'XVI. A Case of Iron Nails dissolved in the Human Stomach, by Means of the Nitric Acid, without any bad Consequences. By E. Harrison, M. D. &c.'

This writer has produced, *magno conatu, magnas nugas.* Nitrous acid will dissolve iron, and nitrous acid may be taken into the stomach! We could, however, have informed our author, that the fluids of the stomach would have soon corroded the iron, so as to render the nails very slightly inconvenient, before they were carried off.

'XVII. Account of a Case of Scirrhous Pylorus. In a Letter from Dr. J. E. Harrison, of Philadelphia, to Dr. Nath. Hulme.'

'XVIII. A Case of Fistula in Ano, from an uncommon Cause. By E. Harrison, M. D. &c.'

These are common cases; but the unusual cause of the fistula was the irritation of the core, the hard dissepimentum, of an apple.

'XIX. The Cases of two Children who received the Small-Pox by Inoculation without previous Inflammation round the Incision, with a few Observations on that Disease. By Thomas Whately, Surgeon.'

It is possible that the matter of small-pox and of siphylis may be absorbed without local inflammation; but we see little utility in recording trifles of this kind.

'XX. Cases of Cynanche Trachealis, successfully treated, with Observations on that Disease. By Henry Field, Apothecary, Sec. M. S.'

We are confident that these cases were not croup. The sonorous breathing is connected with many complaints of the trachea, and particularly with the angina maligna trachealis. These differ considerably from that violent spasmodic breathing, attended with exsudation from every ramification of the aspera arteria, styled croup. There is as little

foundation for our author's diſtinction between inflammatory and ſpaſmodic croup. The diſeaſe always begins with ſome catarrh; and, when it ſeems to attack ſuddenly, ſome inflammatory affection of the bronchial glands has been found to precede. Having examined a great number of caſes, during the prevalence of an epidemic croup, with the late Dr. Cullen, and having kept the object in view during a long period of practice, ſince that time, we can pronounce with confidence that the diſtinction is unfounded. Mr. Field's remedies are ſlight bleedings, calomel, ſquills, and opium. He rejects bliſters as too ſtimulating. Are they too ſtimulating in pleuriſy, where the inflamed part is equally near?—in enteritis, in angina? It is difficult to conceive an argument more weak; and, though we admit bliſters to be uſeleſs, it is on another foundation, viz. that the diſeaſe is not confined to the larynx, but extends to every part of the trachea. When an active bleeding, followed immediately by an emetic, is not ſucceſsful, the true croup becomes an incurable diſeaſe.

'XXI. Deſcription of a particular Species of Eryſipelas. By Thomas Walſhman, F. M. S.'

Theſe are two caſes of eryſipelas, either connected with a morbid ſtate of the ſtomach, or ultimately attacking that organ, and proving fatal. The ſtomach ſhowed that half diſſolved ſtate which Mr. Hunter attributed to the active powers of its own fluids.

'XXII. Caſe of inverted Uterus, with Retention of the Placenta after Parturition. By Tobias Brown, Surgeon-Accoucheur.'

The uterus, with the adhering placenta, was completely inverted by its own efforts, the funis having been broken in conſequence of ſphacelus. They were reduced together, and, after ſome days, the placenta, which was free from mortification, ſeparated, and the woman recovered.

'XXIII. Caſe of Imperforate Rectum and Obſtruction in the Neck of the Bladder. By William Chamberlaine, Memb. Corp. Surg. and F. M. S.'

Theſe common caſes require no remark: they add to the bulk of the volume without increaſing its value.

'XXIV. An Account of the Effects of Ipecacuanha in the Cure of Dyſentery, at Norfolk Iſland. By W. Balmain, acting as chief Surgeon to the Territory of New South-Wales.'

Two drachms of ipecacuanha, with ſixty drops of the tincture of opium, have been found highly ſucceſsful.

'XXV. A Caſe of Empyema. Communicated by Mr. Waſtell, of Broad-Street, St. George's in the Eaſt.'

The tumour, in conſequence of inflammation, was ſo conſiderable, as to protrude the heart to the right ſide, and even to render the pulſations of the carotid quicker than thoſe of

the artery at the wrist. It pointed outwards, and the matter was expelled with complete success.

'XXVI. Effects of Arteriotomy in Cases of Epilepsy. By Anthony Fothergill, of Bath, M. D.'

We wanted no ghost to tell us that opening the temporal artery, with active drastics, would relieve fullness of the vessels of the head, in a greater degree than taking blood from the arm.

'XXVII. Observations on human intestinal Worms, being an Attempt at their Arrangement into Classes, Genera, and Species, by Robert Hooper, M. D.'

In this essay, Dr. Hooper does not adopt a plan so extensive as that of Mr. Virey, in the Journal de Physique, published a year after the present paper was read, but confines himself to the round and flat worms of the intestines. Species so few it is not difficult to arrange; and no great utility can result from the attempt. He describes each form with accuracy, and illustrates the description by plates. The common lumbricus differs considerably from the earth-worm, which, on a superficial view, it seems to resemble; and, contrary to the opinion of Mr. Church, our author thinks it not viviparous. The lumbricus has been supposed by some to be an hermaphrodite; while others have thought that they distinguished different sexes. Dr. Hooper appears to adopt this idea, though he remarks that he has seen only one kind. The ascarides have decidedly the sexes distinct.

The cucurbitini Dr. Hooper considers as joints of the tænia; but he thinks that they have no power of producing other joints, as this is the exclusive office of the head. The tænia lata never parts with its joints, except from violence. Each kind of tænia is probably hermaphrodite.

'XXVIII. A short Memoir on the antivenereal Effects of several Acids, and other Remedies, which have been lately proposed as Substitutes for Mercury in the Cure of Syphilis. By Mr. Blair, Surgeon of the Lock Hospital, &c.'

This article is only a general account of the facts afterwards published by Mr. Blair.

'XXIX. Case of fatal Termination after the Bite of a mad Dog. By Mr. John Haynes, Surgeon, Chipping Norton. Communicated by J. C. Lettsom, M. D. &c.'

'XXIX*. Case of the Bite of a mad Dog. By Mr. Norris, F. M. S. Surgeon to the Charter-House and General Dispensary.'

In the first case the patient died of the hydrophobia, though the part had been apparently cut out; but some portion may accidentally have been neglected: the application of a fluid caustic is properly recommended after excision. In the second, the finger was taken off; but the dog seems not to have been mad,

'XXX. Hiſtory of an Empyema terminating fatally. By J. C. Lettſom, M. D. &c.'

This caſe is not uncommon.

'XXXI. Extract of a Letter from Dr. Patterſon, of Londonderry, dated July 26, 1793.'

This letter contains a ſhort account of an epidemic rheumatiſm, chiefly affecting the cheſt, and occaſionally the diaphragm, producing ſtricture and uneaſineſs. A ſtate of the weather is ſubjoined. The winter was mild, the thermometer never deſcending to the freezing point. April and May were dry and cold; June wet. The mean heat of April was 46° 5′.

'XXXII. Caſe of an Ophthalmia cured by the Application of Oleum Terebinthinæ. Communicated by Mr. Hynam, Surgeon, Ratcliff-Highway.'

The diſeaſe, in which this remedy ſucceeded, ſeems to have been a chronic ſcrofulous ophthalmia, affecting the lids as well as the eye. It was firſt ſuggeſted by the relief felt on pouring ſome oil of turpentine into a ſaucer. The eye was in conſequence expoſed to the vapour, and afterwards it was applied to the eye-lids. It produced inflammation and itching, but in thirteen days effected a cure, after the diſeaſe had continued, in ſpite of the moſt active remedies, for fifteen months.

'XXXIII. An Obſtruction of the Œſophagus removed by a Tobacco Glyſter [Clyſter], on the third Day after the Accident. By Mr. Blair, Surgeon of the Lock Hoſpital.'

The title appears paradoxical, though of eaſy ſolution. The tobacco excited vomiting, and the obſtructing ſubſtance was expelled.

'XXXIV. Caſe of a Child born with variolous Puſtules. By Matthew Flinders, Surgeon, Donington, Lincolnſhire.'

We formerly remarked, that, whenever the fœtus is infected with ſmall-pox from its mother, it occurs when nearly at its full growth, and the infection happens at the period of the diſeaſe, when the pocks turn, and the matter is abſorbed. This caſe ſupports each of the poſitions.

'XXXV. On the Fever of Demerary. By —— Beane, Surgeon in the Army.'

This country we have had repeated occaſion to deſcribe. The diſeaſes, as may be ſuppoſed, are the yellow fever and typhus. Mercury, as uſual in the fevers of hot climates, is the principal remedy.

'XXXVI. Hiſtory of an Aneuriſm of the Aorta. By Wm. Hunter, Eſq. Surgeon in the Eaſt-Indies, in a Letter to J. C. Lettſom, M. and LL. D.'

This caſe is ſingular, as its leading feature was that of extreme irritability, without any ſymptoms of dyſpnœa, or thoſe

of an affection of the heart. The pain was tranſitory and ſhifting, and the moſt uſeful remedies were tonics. The whole ſeries of complaints ſhowed chiefly an hyſteric habit, and, in our progreſs, had it not been for the title, we ſhould have conſidered them as indicating the ſeminium of latent or ſuppreſſed gout. The aneuriſm muſt have been the original diſeaſe, and of early occurrence. Such caſes are truly valuable.

'XXXVII. Pathological Remarks upon various Kinds of Alienation of Mind. By James Sims, M. D. Preſ. M. S. L. F. A. S. and R. I. Ac. Hon. F. N. Y. and Maſſ. Med. Soc. V. P. Philanth. Soc. &c.'

Dr. Sims' deſcriptions are in general exact, but ſimilar ones are recorded by numerous authors. When a phyſician oſtentatiouſly brings forward the extenſive practice of fifty years, we might have expected a more profitable harveſt.

'XXXVIII. Caſe of a Gun Breech penetrating the Cranium, and remaining within it two Months, previous to the Death of the Patient. By Mr. John Weldon, Surgeon, of Great Torrington, Devon. Communicated by John Abernethy, F. R. S. Aſſiſtant Surgeon, and Teacher of Anatomy, at St. Bartholomew's Hoſpital.'

The apparent recovery after ſo ſerious an accident, and the continuance of tolerable health for ſome weeks, while ſo large an extraneous body was lodged in the brain, are truly ſingular, and well deſerve to be recorded. The caſe alſo is well related, and the practice judicious.

'XXXIX. Sketch of a Deſcription of a Species of Scarlatina Anginoſa, which occurred in the Autumn of 1798. By James Sims, M. D. &c.'

A diſorder among cats and horſes preceded. On this ſubject we ſhall copy ſome of the preſident's remarks.

'I have been more particular in mentioning this diſeaſe, from an opinion, that much information, as to epidemics, might be gained by tracing their progreſs through the whole animal creation. Homer makes his plague begin with dogs and mules, and moſt accounts of other plagues ſtate a great previous mortality of cattle. A farther reaſon weighs with me for mentioning this, which is, that I have long entertained, and often mentioned to this Society, an idea that all infectious diſorders are originally derived from brutes. The cow-pox has been lately demonſtrated to be ſo. The mange in dogs and cats I know to give the itch, and that of two ſorts, the one being evidently larger than the other.

'In the ſummer of 1798, a diſorder prevailed much among horſes. This, as I was informed by ſome, appeared to be peripneumonic; others, however, ſaid it reſembled the glanders, there being conſtantly a great diſcharge of fœtid matter from the noſtrils:

whichsoever it belonged to, all agreed that the bleeding and the antiphlogistic regimen succeeded best in removing it.

'If I were permitted to indulge in theoretical conjectures, I might trace epidemics to their source, in the following manner. Man's diet being both from the animal and vegetable kingdoms, and the former depending for food principally on the latter, a change probably takes place in vegetables prior to that in animals, and both serve to operate on man. The change in the vegetable creation must be produced, in a great measure, by the variations in the aërial and gazeous fluids with which it is surrounded; these variations act therefore both directly upon man, and also indirectly, through the medium of his aliment. Still farther, the variations in the atmosphere are all produced by light or heat, which also act upon all nature and man, as well directly as indirectly, through the different gradations above mentioned.' P. 418.

This epidemic was chiefly to be distinguished by swellings under the throat, resembling, we suppose, those of the cynanche parotidæa. The bark, Dr. Sims seems to think, is useless in this or any other fever, 'where the tongue and lips are dry and dark-coloured, and the teeth covered with a black fur.' Yet the president professes to be partial to the use of bark. We are not partial to it in fevers, but must add that, if it be dreaded in such situations, almost the only states in which it can be used with advantage will be precluded. We *have* heard this doctrine from others, but not from practitioners of 'half a century.'

'XL. Physical Hints and Queries. By James Sims, M.D. &c.'

The great object of this paper is to show, that matter is active; and the president adduces various arguments against the *vis inertiæ* of bodies, which have been repeatedly answered by Maclaurin and others. He adds some striking instances of activity, but neglects to state the great distinction between himself and those whom he opposes, viz. that they speak of matter in the mass, he of the minuter particles in a repulsive state. Newton acknowledged the latter to be active in a high degree, and rests many of his theories, indeed the foundation of his whole system, in their activity, when in the form of æther. In his idea of the conversion of water into earth, and of air into water, Dr. Sims is more correct; but when he asks, whether in consequence of this conversion of elements the globe must not be daily 'increasing in *bulk*,' the philosopher will smile, and ask, whether 100 cubic inches of air or water, reduced respectively to water or earth, make masses of greater *bulk* than in their original state. He meant, perhaps, to say *mean density*.

'XLI. History of a Case of Incysted Dropsy, with an

Account of the Appearances on Diffection. By Sayer Walker, M. D. Treafurer of the Medical Society of London, Phyfician in Ordinary to the London Lying-in-Hofpital, and to the City Difpenfary.'

This is a cafe of dropfy of the ovarium, of a very large fize. We have feen more than one fimilar to it, and can fay, from experience, that paracentefis adds to the comfort of the patient, and prolongs life.

'XLII. A Cafe of Cæfarean Section. By William Wood, Member of the Corporation of Surgeons in London, and Man-Midwife in Ordinary to the Lying-in Hofpital in Manchefter.'

This cafe is given as an appendix; and, as it has occafioned fome controverfy, we muft dwell upon it. Two papers have been communicated to us on the fame fubject, one from Mr. Simmons, the other from the 'men-midwives' of the Manchefter Infirmary *. Unconnected with either party, we fhall at leaft endeavour to be impartial.

A woman in labour was removed from her refidence, at a diftance of nine miles, to the Manchefter Infirmary. On examination, the fuperior aperture of the pelvis was found too fmall to admit the defcent of the child's head, or the employment of the crotchet. The Cæfarean fection was therefore refolved on; the operation was performed, and the child preferved; but the woman died. Such is the naked outline. Mr. Wood brings forward, perhaps invidioufly, the circumftance of the woman's being brought nine miles, on a rugged road, in a cart, and hints, more plainly, that, if the operation had been performed at her own houfe, fhe, as well as the child, might have been preferved. Mr. Simmons, who was called in confultation with her firft furgeon, Mr. Ogden, feels this infinuation, and replies, that, though brought in a cart, fhe was flung in a bed refembling a hammock; and he fuggefts, that, even in the infirmary, no blood was taken, nor any injection thrown up, till eighteen hours after the operation, while the inteftines were unneceffarily expofed. The accoucheurs of the infirmary generoufly fhare whatever blame may be thrown on Mr. Wood, and contend, that the woman was too weak for bleeding, and that the injection was thought ufelefs, as a diarrhœa had preceded; adding, with Mr. Wood, that the woman died of a mortification of the uterus,

* 1. A printed letter, figned 'W. Simmons,' publifhed alfo in the Medical and Phyfical Journal.

2. A further Statement of the Cafe of Elizabeth Thomfon, upon whom the Cæfarean Operation was performed in the Manchefter Lying-in Hofpital, in Addition to that publifhed by Mr. Wood, by Charles White and Richard Hall, Men-Midwives Extraordinary, and George Tomlinfon and John Thorp, Men-Midwives in Ordinary to that Charity. Manchefter, 1799, fmall 4to.

from a preſſure of the head againſt the cervix uteri, perhaps in conſequence of the conveyance.

From theſe facts, we know not that blame attaches to either party, as each acted according to the beſt information that the circumſtances could afford. The woman had certainly a better chance of ſucceſs at Mancheſter than in her own village; nor can we conſider, that any part of the misfortune was imputable to the carriage, either from the exerciſe or the time loſt. The operation was performed within twenty hours after the waters broke; and, as the patient was ſlung in a hammock, no force could be particularly directed to the cervix uteri, from that cauſe. Why, indeed, ſhould we look to this injury from the conveyance, when the action of the uterus itſelf, puſhing the child againſt the reſiſting bones, might occaſion it?

The operation was performed, we believe, with great dexterity; but, from Mr. Wood's own account, the inteſtines were much expoſed; a circumſtance highly dangerous, and, we believe, the cauſe of death, in this and in every other inſtance of the Cæſarean ſection. As gangrene was found in the cervix uteri, this was immediately ſuppoſed to be the occaſion of the fatal event; but, though this would have otherwiſe proved fatal, the ſymptoms ſhow, that it was not the principal diſeaſe. The pulſe, which was for eighteen or twenty hours moderate, both in quickneſs and ſtrength, beat by degrees more rapidly, and became harder, with every ſymptom of irritation; and no ſtool could be procured. Theſe are not ſymptoms of inflammation or gangrene in the uterus, but of inflammation in the bowels. We have remarked ſome inconſiſtency in Mr. Wood's narrative, compared with that of the accoucheurs of the infirmary. The latter obſerve that there was *no* peritonæal or inteſtinal inflammation; the former affirms, that there was *very little appearance* of inflammation either in the peritonæum or inteſtines. The ſymptoms, however, were decidedly of that kind. The queſtion will then recur, ſhould not blood have been taken from the arm, or a clyſter have been immediately thrown up? The reaſons why neither operation was attempted have been given; and we cannot controvert them. Perhaps, indeed, both would have been uſeleſs. We have engaged in this examination from a wiſh to heal wounds, which former diſputes have left to rankle, and which Mr. Wood's incautious, perhaps indelicate inſinuations, have contributed to render more painful. Perhaps his paper, written in haſte, and publiſhed with a ſuſpicious precipitation, might, after ſome reflexion, have been ſoftened; and, if Mr. Simmons, after correcting what was erroneous, or ſupplying what was deficient in the narrative, had omitted the inſinuations againſt the other practitioners,

the flame would not have spread so widely, and such a disagreeable altercation, even within their narrow circle, might have been avoided.

Graphic Illustrations of Hogarth, from Pictures, and Drawings, in the Possession of Samuel Ireland, Author of this Work; of a Picturesque Tour through Holland, Brabant, &c. and of the Picturesque Beauties of the Rivers Thames, Medway, Avon, Wye, &c. Vol. II.* 8vo. 2l. 5s. Boards. Faulder. 1799.

THE rich harvest of Hogarth's works has been followed by ample gleanings; and two persons of the name of Ireland have distinguished themselves in this field. Mr. Samuel has also rendered himself remarkable in another field, by endeavouring to chain his reputation to a yet greater name than that of Hogarth. We shall not, however, as the gentlemen of the law express it, travel out of the record, but most candidly confine ourselves to the work before us, remembering the golden precept,

'Press not a falling man too far; 'tis virtue.'

This new volume of Hogarthiana contains forty-nine plates, many of which are well engraven. The most interesting, and at the same time the most authentic subjects, are N° 22, Mr. Rich and Family, from a painting in the possession of Mr. Langford, and N° 24, Falstaff examining his Recruits, from Mrs. Garrick's picture.

The first print in the series is a representation of Hogarth, from a bust by Roubilliac. The three next numbers,—Mrs. Hogarth, Lady Thornhill, and Mr. James Thornhill,—cannot surely interest the warmest admirers of Hogarth. It is not necessary that the portrait of an eminent man should be accompanied by representations of all his insignificant family. Passing over the prints from the drawings for Hudibras, we arrive at

N° 12, which exhibits Sancho in his Government. This is a poor print.

13. Frontispiece to Leveridge's Songs; if genuine, most miserable; the very *bathos* of Hogarth.

14. A Concert Ticket; little better.—The three next were not worth engraving. That they are by Hogarth is not certain.

18. Lavinia Fenton, afterwards duchess of Bolton; a pleasing print, from a painting 'most undoubtedly' by Hogarth, says

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* See the account of Vol. I. in our XIIth Vol. New Arr. p. 417.

Mr. Samuel Ireland—and who can doubt Mr. Ireland's teſtimony?

The next number is Roſamond's Pond, 'moſt undoubtedly' good for nothing.—In the ſame claſs may be put N° 20.

21. Governor Rogers and Family; rather better.

22. This has been already mentioned. The compoſition is pleaſing.

23. Scene in a Hay-field; inſipid.

24. Already praiſed. The hand of Hogarth is here ſelf-apparent. The ſtupid ſurpriſe of one juſtice, the apathic idiocy of the other, the hypocritical bow of the well-clothed fellow who is diſcharged for a bribe, the eager and graſping expectation of his companion, the rage of the fellow in rags at this injuſtice, the demure ſlyneſs of a bye-ſtander, all beſpeak the hand of the maſter. The defect is, that Falſtaff, the chief figure, is the moſt feeble and inexpreſſive in the piece.

26. Dennis the Critic; doubtful.

27. Boys peeping at Nature. The attitude and expreſſion of the boy puſhing away the little ſatyr are exquiſitely infantine.

28. A Sketch of a firſt Deſign for the Rake's Progreſs; middling.

29. The Sleeping Shepherd; inſipid, if genuine.

30. Female Curioſity. The man's thighs are ſo badly drawn, that it is difficult to determine whether they were taken from before or from behind.

31. Painter's Room; a poor piece.

32. Ill Effects of Maſquerades; feebly managed; quite unworthy of Hogarth.

33. Auction of Pictures; deplorable; deſtitute of character and effect.

34. This is from a fine drawing, like the ſtyle of Cipriani; yet artiſts would find one of the eyes placed too high. This, Mr. Ireland gravely tells us, is lady Pembroke, drawn by Hogarth from recollection! It as much reſembles Hogarth's manner as Raffaelle's ſtyle is like that of Teniers.

One general remark we muſt make. Mr. Ireland's chief object ought to have been to certify the genuineneſs of the pieces, by mentioning where they were found, through whoſe hands they paſſed, &c. Yet on ſuch topics he is generally ſilent.

35. Hazard Table; inſipidity itſelf.

36. Hippeſley the Comedian. The copper 'was purchaſed in an obſcure part of the town.' Very ſatisfactory!

37. A Converſation, in the Style of Vandyke; by no means excellent. An illuſtration is added from 'ſome papers, *ſaid*

to be in Hogarth's own hand-writing.' Yet Mr. Ireland repeatedly quotes Hogarth's hand-writing.

38. The Enraged Musician, from the original sketch; not worth engraving.

39. A Scene in a Banking-House in 1745; meagre.

40. Broughton and Slack.

41, &c. Four Plates of the Happy Marriage; bald, ill-told, and in some parts unintelligible.

45. Satire on False Perspective, from the original drawing.

46. George II. his Queen, and Family. If we judge from the print, never was there a more ridiculous mistake, or a more glaring imposition. Not one person has the smallest resemblance to any of that family!

47. Design for a new Order of Architecture; not worth engraving.

48. Whole-length Profiles of Garrick and Hogarth, in shades. This might require a disquisition when shades were first executed in this country.

49. The Shakspeare Chair at Hampton, designed by Hogarth.

Having thus given the reader an idea of the prints, we will extract some of the most interesting descriptions.

N° 18. The account of Lavinia Fenton, afterwards duchess of Bolton.

'In the present undertaking, I have not affected to arrange the prints which are inserted in it, with the exactness of chronological order; but I have endeavoured to distribute them in such a manner, as to diversify the work as much as possible.

'The portrait of Lavinia Fenton is most undoubtedly a very early production of Hogarth. Indeed the date of it may be nearly ascertained, from the probability of its having been painted, when Gay's Beggars Opera first attained its popularity on the English stage.

'Miss Fenton, it is well known, was the dramatic heroine of the piece: and it is most probable, that notwithstanding its intrinsic merit, and the original character and humor, with which it abounds, it was in a great measure indebted to the talents of this actress for the success which it met with.

'Her attractions, both in point of figure and musical powers, were so fascinating, that it seemed doubtful, whether the applause of crouded audiences were bestowed on the drama, or on the beautiful and interesting female that personated its principal character.

'It would be superfluous to discourse concerning the merits of the portrait. It is a sufficient panegyric to remark, that it is finished in the best manner of our artist. The countenance is composed of a combination of features, united together with the exactest symmetry and proportion.

'There is also a peculiar sweetness of expression in the eyes, which at once indicate a more than ordinary portion of vivacity and penetration.

'It is only natural to suppose, that these external advantages, united to an uncommon share of natural wit, should have contributed to make her an universal favorite with the public. Perhaps the digression will be pardoned me, if I give the reader a short sketch of the most material incidents in her life. It is impossible not to feel some curiosity concerning a character, which had arrived at so high a degree of celebrity at the period, when she flourished, in the annals of beauty and gallantry; especially also as she experienced one of those vicissitudes of fortune, which very rarely occurs in the course of human affairs.

'Lavinia Fenton was born in the year 1708. She was the reputed daughter of a Mr. Beswick, a lieutenant of a man of war. Not long after the birth of Lavinia, her mother married a man of the name of Fenton, who opened a coffee-house in the vicinity of Charing-Cross. Almost in infancy this young lady discovered a very uncommon talent for music, and a voice singularly melodious. Her parents spared no diligence, nor expence, to improve the powers with which nature had endued her, and which, as they imagined, might, at some future period, contribute most materially to her advancement in life. Her talents were soon known to the then manager of the Hay-Market Theatre; and accordingly in 1726 she made her first appearance on that stage in the play of the Orphan.

'With the natural gifts of a powerful voice, an attractive figure, and a retentive memory, she was soon considered as a very useful actress, and obtained from the town the most liberal marks of applause and admiration. At that time, it was no uncommon thing, for popular players, to receive presents of considerable value from persons of rank, who were gratified with their performance; and it is not surprising that a young lady, so generally admired as miss Fenton, should receive the most liberal marks of munificence. From her situation, she was exposed at the same time to the attentions of the principal men of gallantry of the day. Amongst others, who professed themselves her admirers, she was persecuted by the importunities of a young man of rank and fashion, who in a style and manner, that wounded the delicacy of her feelings, entreated her to retire with him into the country. Fond of admiration, habituated to public life, and in the first dawn of her youth, it is easy to imagine that Lavinia would feel no great predilection for rural retirement, on the terms proposed to her. Her repugnance to the country she is said to have expressed upon this occasion in some spirited lines still extant, but which overflow with so much of that gallantry, and libertinism of diction, that characterised the time she lived in, that I forbear to insert them.

'It seems that not long after she had poured forth the effusion

of gallantry I have alluded to, and which was rapidly circulated, and eagerly sought after by the town, she appeared in a character, not very unsuitable to the author of such a composition: that of Cherry, in the Beaux Stratagem. Her powers were so fascinating in her performance of this character, that all the men of wit and spirit of the time were competitors for her favors, and contended together in a sort of emulation to please and gratify her. The reputation she had already acquired was a powerful inducement to Rich to engage her at his theatre in Lincoln's-Inn-Fields. She accepted his offer of a salary of fifteen shillings a week, which was soon after doubled, on her appearance in the Beggars Opera. And in this character she displayed such strong powers, both vocal and dramatic, that she attained in the theatrical world the highest consummation of fame.

'This seems to be the æra of the remarkable good fortune which she met with. Gay, in a letter to Swift, dated July 6, 1728, says, "The duke of Bolton has run away with Polly Peachum, having settled 400l. a year upon her during pleasure, and upon disagreement 200l. a year."

'She lived with this nobleman for twenty-four years, and became his wife in 1751, on the death of his duchess. She held this dignity nine years; died in 1760, and was buried at Greenwich. During her connexion with the duke, she never forfeited the estimation in which her character was held; and in her conjugal state supported the duties of it with propriety and decorum. I shall close this brief account of this very extraordinary lady in words, for the insertion of which I need not make any apology, when I remark that they are those of Dr. Joseph Warton in a note to one of Swift's letters addressed to Gay.

"She was very accomplished; was a most agreeable companion: had much wit, and strong good sense, and a just taste in polite literature. Her person was agreeable and well made, though she could not be called a beauty. I have had the pleasure of being at table with her, when her conversation was much admired by the first characters of the age, particularly the old lord Bathurst, and lord Granville. Quin thought the success of this opera so doubtful, that he would not undertake to play the part of Macheath, but gave it up to Walker. And indeed it had like to have miscarried and been damned, till Polly sung in a most tender and affecting manner the words,

> "For on the rope that hangs my dear,
> Depends poor Polly's life."

"This is the air, that is said irresistibly to have conquered the lover who afterwards married her." P. 49.

'Ill effects of masquerades.—This etching is taken from a slight sketch in oil by Hogarth, and has never before been engraved.

'No subject perhaps ever offered a more fertile and expanded field for the powers of the pen or the pencil, the painter or the moralist, than this on which the fancy of our artist was exercised. The sketch now before us is in an unfinished state: yet it evidently conveys a very forcible and characteristic expression of the conceptions of its author, upon the melancholy and fatal catastrophe, which he has selected as the subject of his ingenuity.

'It is much to be regretted, however, that a greater portion of time and industry was not expended upon a subject, which from the striking indications of merit it displays, there is every reason to suppose would have held no inferior rank among the labours of this great moralist. The story, of which the principal incidents and catastrophe are illustrated in this sketch, is simply this.

'Two young persons, who had entertained mutual sentiments of attachment towards each other, not long after their marriage, had found it necessary, on account of some temporary emergency, for a short time to separate from each other. The husband, painful as an absence must have been, after a recent union with a woman whom he loved, was under the necessity of retiring into the country.

'He left his wife with her only sister, whose society he considered would be some relief to her, under the pangs and regrets of their separation. In the interval of his absence, the ladies proposed, by way of an evening's entertainment, to accompany each other to a masquerade.

'The arrangements for the evening were made; and, without any expectation of the evil consequences that might ensue from an harmless frolic, the wife assumed the dress and character of a gallant, and the sister that of the lady to whom he was directing his attentions. At the end of the entertainment they returned home, and slept as usual in the same bed. The husband, however, left the country sooner than was expected; and had arrived at his own house a very little time after they had retired to their chamber. With the ardent impatience of an affectionate husband, he rushed to his wife's apartment, on the floor of which he saw the habit of a gentleman. The transitions from love to jealousy are quicker than can be imagined in minds of acute and lively sensibility. The unhappy man could not wait for ampler proofs of his wife's inconstancy; but in a phrenzy of revenge stabbed them both in the instant. This is the subject which our artist undertook to elucidate in the present sketch; and the period of time which it represents, is that in which the surgeon is in the act of dressing the wounds inflicted by the husband, who is hanging over his wife in an attitude of extreme despair, imploring her forgiveness. To heighten the melancholy graces of the picture, a child is clinging about the father, and the rest of the company are overwhelmed in grief, while the sister is apparently fainting on a sopha, near which the physician and others are administering to her relief.' P. 98.

Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy. Vol. VI. (Concluded from p. 316.)

ON a recurrence to this volume, the first article which claims our notice will interest the geologist and the philosopher.

'XIV. On the primitive State of the Globe, and its subsequent Catastrophe. By Richard Kirwan, Esq. LL. D. F. R. S. and M. R. I. A.'

This article would of itself have formed a volume, had the author chosen to separate it. On the first perusal, we were greatly surprised at the similarity of these opinions to the system which we heard with pleasure, some years since, from a member of a philosophical society; yet the two articles were sufficiently different to destroy every idea that either of them furnished an atom to the other. They were both seemingly drawn from an extensive and judicious inquiry into the natural phænomena of this globe. We feel some difficulty in giving a proper account of our author's doctrine; to pursue it with the minuteness which it deserves, would lead us too far; and to dismiss it with a general encomium would be unjust. We must steer between the extremes, and hope to be forgiven, if, inclosed within narrow limits, our account should appear too general.

In the first essay, after an able introduction on the nature of the testimony to be obtained in such researches, and some judicious remarks on the peculiar propriety of such investigations at this time, the author treats of the primæval state of the globe. He thinks, with apparent propriety, that the Mosaic system is a correct and philosophical account of the progress of this world, from a confused chaos, to the present, or rather the antediluvian state. That it was once a chaos is proved from the sphæroidal shape; and Mr. Kirwan, who, in a former paper on magnetism, concluded that all the parts of this globe were once in a yielding state, now limits it to a certain depth. We believe it to be demonstrable that his first opinion must be the true one. The production of some insoluble substances, which would require an immense quantity of water, he considers as by no means difficult of explanation. They were originally in that minute division which aqueous solution requires; and much less of a fluid will keep a substance dissolved, than is required to dissolve it. Mr. Kirwan hints also at the efficacy of compound menstrua, without sufficiently enlarging on this head. The water, subsiding, left the dry land clear; and he considers calcareous earth as one of the original stones, in opposition to M. Buffon and Dr. Hutton, whose systems he combats in many parts

of this essay with considerable force. The formation of the continents, the atmosphere, &c. he explains very comprehensively. He thinks that fish were not produced before the ocean had fallen 8500 or 9000 feet, because their exuviæ occur at no higher points. The small proportion of land, in these early periods, and the heat produced by the various crystallisations, sufficiently explain the greater temperature of the same latitudes in those periods, and the production of animated beings not adapted to the present climates.

The second essay relates to the deluge, and evinces greater accuracy and ingenuity, if possible, than the former. This Mr. Kirwan also explains on the Mosaic foundation, and supposing that, in the former subsidence of the waters, the ocean was in a large proportion collected in the southern hemisphere, he explains the breaking-up of the abyss, by the return of the sea once more to overwhelm the continent, formed on the northern hemisphere. This system he ably supports by various geological facts; and it deserves particular attention. Near fifteen years ago, we called the attention of philosophers to the direction, of the bays, &c. which plainly showed a vast current from north to south, and again occasionally to the west. This doctrine Mr. Kirwan elucidates and confirms. The answer to one objection we will select in his own words.

'Passing over the systems of Burnet, Woodward, and Whiston, which have been repeatedly refuted, I recur to the account of this great revolution given by Moses himself, taken in its plain literal sense, as the only one that appears perfectly consistent with all the phœnomena now known, of which I shall find occasion to mention many; he plainly ascribes it to a supernatural cause, namely, the express intention of God to punish mankind for their crimes. We must therefore consider the deluge as a miraculous effusion of water, both from the clouds and from the great abyss; if the waters, situated partly within and partly without the caverns of the globe, were once sufficient to cover even the highest mountains, as I have shewn in the former essay, they must have been sufficient to do so a second time, when miraculously educed out of those caverns.

'Early geologists, not attending to these facts, thought all the waters of the ocean insufficient; it was supposed that its mean depth did not exceed a quarter of a mile, and that only half of the surface of the globe was covered by it; on these data Keil computed that twenty-eight oceans would be requisite to cover the whole earth to the height of four miles, which he judged to be that of the highest mountains, a quantity at that time considered as extravagant and incredible; but a further progress in mathematical and physical knowledge has since shewn the different seas and

oceans to contain at leaſt forty-eight times more water than they were ſuppoſed to do.

'Mr. De la Place, calculating their average depth, not from a few vague and partial ſoundings, for ſuch they have ever been, (the polar regions having been never ſounded, particularly the antartic) but from a ſtrict application of the theory of tides to the height to which they are known to riſe in the main ocean, demonſtrates that a depth, reaching only to half a league, or even two or three leagues, is incompatible with the Newtonian theory, as no depth under four leagues could reconcile it with the phænomena. The vindication of the Moſaic hiſtory does not require near ſo much. The extent of the ſea is known to be far greater than Keil ſuppoſed, that of the earth ſcarcely paſſing one third of the ſurface of the globe.' P. 278.

It is a ſtriking confirmation of our author's doctrine, that the foſſile ſhells of the northern hemiſphere are thoſe of the ſouthern, while the foſſile ſhells of the latter are thoſe only of the neighbouring ſea.

The third eſſay is on ſome ſubſequent cataſtrophes, as the ſeparation of Aſia and America, the coarctation of the Baltic, the ſeparation of the Caſpian from the Euxine, and the junction of the latter with the Mediterranean. The continents of Aſia and America were once, in Mr. Kirwan's opinion, united, and this junction was not deſtroyed by the deluge, but they continued to form a connected continent ſo far down as the 40th degree of north latitude. That they were here divided he thinks evident, as the elephants are not known in the warmer regions of America. In examining theſe regions, when we reviewed the account of captain Cooke's voyage, we had reaſon for thinking, that the two continents were once much farther ſeparated than at preſent; and it is remarkable, that the inhabitants of the moſt northern regions of America are of European, rather than Aſiatic, origin. Though we find from captain Vancouver, and M. de la Pérouſe, that, on each ſide, the ſea gains on the north and the weſt, yet this happens in every other part of the globe, where there is a large body of water. On the whole, therefore, we have not ſufficient reaſon for thinking that theſe continents were ever united; and we could probably explain the population of America more ſucceſsfully, in another way, on the author's own ſyſtem. As we lately noticed what appeared to be the original ſtate of the Mediterranean, in our ſurvey of M. Sonnini's Travels, we ſhall add Mr. Kirwan's obſervations on the ſubject. Theſe two authors are by no means inconſiſtent with each other.

'The Mediterranean, before its union with the Black Sea and the Ocean, was moſt probably a baſon, much narrower and ſhallower than at preſent; for though it received ſeveral conſiderable

rivers, the Nile, the Rhone and the Po, yet ſince even now evaporation from its ſurface is ſufficient to prevent it from overflowing, notwithſtanding that the Ocean on the one ſide, and the Euxine on the other, flow into it, we may well ſuppoſe that when it communicated with neither, evaporation kept its level much lower; when therefore by the rupture of the Thracian Iſthmus on the one ſide, and of the African, which joined Ceuta with Gibraltar on the other, the waters of both were poured in upon it, an immenſe preſſure took place on its bed, under which it ſunk and fell into the inferior cavities of the globe. During this tremendous tumult, the iſlands of Sicily, Sardinia, Corſica, and thoſe of the Archipelago, were torn off, and Italy was lengthened to its preſent ſhape. The neighbouring ſhores of France and Spain, and more eſpecially thoſe of Africa, as being much lower, and thoſe of Greece and Aſia, muſt have been inundated to a great extent; and hence the ſaline ſubſtances ſtill exiſting in the adjacent parts of Africa, &c.

'As the ſouthern parts of Italy ſtill abound in ſulphur and other inflammable ſubſtances, ſo probably did the contiguous parts of the bed of the Mediterranean, and by the immenſe friction which they muſt have ſuffered during this fall, and the hollows that interceded the abrupted maſſes, the firſt ſubterraneous fires might have been kindled, and the beds of the actual volcanos prepared, which, however, did not probably acquire ſufficient ſtrength to burſt through the incumbent earthy ſtrata until ſome ages after, as I conjecture from the ſilence of Homer with reſpect to Ætna, whoſe wonders, had they exiſted in his time, he probably would not have overlooked.' P. 298.

'The ſteep abrupt coaſts from Genoa to Leghorn, deſcribed by Ferber in his twenty-ſecond letter, muſt be aſcribed to the rupture of the ſtrata, as tides, ſcarcely ſenſible in this ſea, cannot be even ſuſpected of having acted ſo powerfully upon them. The rapidity of the Rhone, and of moſt of the rivers that fall into this ſea on the European ſide, alſo indicate the great inclination of the ſtrata of the interior countries towards it, a natural conſequence of the depreſſion of their primitive ſupport. The mountains of Swiſſerland diſcover alſo veſtiges of a ſhock on the ſouth-eaſt, as I have already noticed, the detail of which I leave to the many excellent geologiſts of that country.

'The communication of the Euxine with the Ocean by means of the Mediterranean being thus formed, its level gradually ſubſided, the canal which joined it with the Caſpian dried up; as few great rivers fall into this (only the Wolga and the Ural) it was ſoon reduced by evaporation to its preſent level, which is ſaid to be lower than that of any other ſea; and thus the ſalt deſerts that border it, were formed, and its ſeparation from the Aral effected.' P. 300.

What relates to this island may be more peculiarly interesting.

'The entire separation of Great-Britain from the continent must have happened long after the deluge, and that of Ireland from Great-Britain at a still later period; for wolves and bears were anciently found in both, and these must have passed from the continent into Britain, and from this into Ireland, as their importation cannot be suspected. These events, as I already said, must have been prepared, and have commenced by the shock communicated during the rupture and depression of the bed of the Atlantic. The divulsive force that separated Britain from Germany seems to have been directed from north to south, but gradually weakened in its progress. Hence that island is sharpened to the northwards, but the impression must have been considerably weakened by the opposition of the granitic mountains that form the Shetland and Orkney Isles. The looser structure of the calcareous or argillaceous and arenaceous materials of the more southern parts offered less resistance, was more easily preyed upon, and gave way to what is now called the German Ocean, while these materials themselves were spread over Westphalia, &c. or formed the subsoil of Flanders, Holland, and the sand-banks on its coast. The rupture of the isthmus that joined Calais and Dover was probably effected by an earthquake at a later period, and gradually widened by tides and currents. Ireland was protected by Scotland from the violence of the northern shock; hence its separation from Scotland appears to have been late and gradual. That from England was probably diluvial, and effected by a southern shock.

'All these changes happened at least three thousand six hundred years ago, and I see no reason to think that the general level of the Ocean has since been altered, but that of the continents seems to have varied considerably, being in some places higher and in others lower than anciently.' P. 301.

'XVII. A Description of an Air-Pump of a new Construction, with an Account of its Performance, and of some Experiments and Observations tending to ascertain the Circumstances on which the Perfection of that Machine depends, and to render its Theory more compleat. By the Rev. James Little, of Lacken, in the County of Mayo.'

The writer's great object is to produce a more perfect vacuum, with a view to some electrical experiments, and particularly the production of the aurora borealis. Various facts seem to show that this is not an electrical phænomenon, unless electricity and magnetism should really be more closely connected than they at present seem to be.

'The experiments (says Mr. Little) have satisfied me, that the aurora borealis is an electrical phænomenon; that (at least

when it is faint, and of a pale colour) it cannot appear in air lefs rarefied than near 4000 times *; and confequently that its neareft diftance from the earth is about forty-five miles (according to doctor Halley's table of the air's rarefaction at different altitudes); that in air rarefied more than 26,000 times, it would not be vifible, and therefore its greateft diftance is about fifty miles (by the fame table): I am notwithftanding fenfible it may be lefs or greater: it may be lefs, for though my pear-gage fhewed that degree of rarefaction, I pretend not to fay what the rarefaction reall[illegible]ight be fix times lefs; but it could not, I think, be known by any gage what it was, as I am perfuaded, that the difference of altitude between my barometer-gage, and that of the moft perfect barometer, would at that time be imperceptible to the eye: it may be greater; for a quantity or ftratum of electric matter $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch in thicknefs, as in my tube, may be invifible, when one of the fame denfity, but many miles in thicknefs, as in the atmofphere, may be quite luminous, though the light from it be diminifhed by the diftance from the eye. The light was fainter in every degree of the rarefaction, when there was moifture in the tube, from my having put a little bit of wet leather in the receiver (which, however, was dried in the exhauftion); and this inclines me to think, that it is air burnt and exploded in its paffage, which makes the electric matter vifible; and that were there no air, if it could pafs at all, it would not be luminous: for though we were to fuppofe, that the electric matter would be rendered luminous by mere watery vapour, without any air, yet I imagine the extreme cold, in very elevated regions of the atmo-

* 'Perhaps becaufe denfer air, affording too much refiftance to its paffage, i. e. being a worfe conductor, it takes a circuit by the rarer air in the higher regions, from the place where it is pofitive to that where negative; and yet that air, though rarefied, fhould be a conductor, feems a hard fuppofition, feeing that air of the common denfity is a non-conductor and electric; for were it otherwife, there could be no accumulation of electric matter any where, nor could any mafs of matter be excited or infulated; becaufe the electricity would inftantly diffufe itfelf, as it does in vacuo. When a veffel is exhaufted of air, it is not exhaufted of all the water which was kept diffolved in the air, as will be evident if a glafs veffel full of air, even in the drieft ftate, be made to communicate fuddenly with a large exhaufted receiver; for the water, which was in the air in the veffel, will appear in it like a mift or fteam on the evacuation of the air: hence quære, is it not the moift vapour in exhaufted veffels, and not the vacuum or rarefied air in them, which conducts the electric matter? And is not denfe air a non-conductor, in virtue of its diffolving and combining with water? And in the experiments here recited, where great rarefaction was produced in a very dry ftate of the air, was not the diminution of the electric light, and, perhaps, obftruction of the current of electric matter, owing to the fubtraction not only of almoft all the air, but of all the moifture too, from the receiver and tube? Water may be imbibed by air (as it is by alkaline falts) fo greedily, as not to be detached from the air left in a tube, even by the heat it receives in boiling mercury in it; fo that in an imperfect vacuum, even thus produced, the conducting power may refide in the moifture, and the electric light be owing to the combuftion or decompofition of air; and perhaps the electric matter could neither pafs, nor be vifible in a perfect vacuum, free from both water and air.'

sphere, would freeze this vapour, as it does near the earth, and condense it into icicles, destroying its elasticity; so that it could not ascend, by its expansive force, beyond that height, in which there would still be air, though of great tenuity: if these things be so, the aurora borealis is confined within our atmosphere.' P. 387.

The particular description of our author's improvements we cannot detail. They depend greatly on admitting no air between the piston and the receiver, during exhaustion.

'XVIII. On the Application of a converging Series to the Construction of Logarithms. By Mr. William Allman, A. B. Trinity College, Dublin.'

The numerous and intricate calculations in this paper render an abridgement of it impracticable.

The departments of polite literature and antiquities still remain; but they furnish no articles very ingenious or interesting.

The first, in the former department, is entitled

'Some Hints concerning the State of Science at the Revival of Letters, grounded on a Passage of Dante in his Inferno, Canto IV. v. 130. By the Right Honourable the Earl of Charlemont, President of the Royal Irish Academy, and F. R. S.'

The passage quoted relates to Aristotle. The earl speaks of the revival of literature, and traces some of the causes which occasioned the strong and early predilection for the Stagirite's metaphysics. These were the violence of the theological controversies; the childish fancy, at this developement of the human mind, for paradoxes; and the great interest excited by the arguments in support of the being of a God. The author afterwards notices Voltaire's opinion, that Constantinople was the source from which the sciences flowed into Italy. The Arabians, he shows, brought them to Florence, long before the conquest of Constantine's metropolis.

'II. Reflections on the Choice of Subjects for Tragedy among the Greek writers, by William Preston, Esq. M. R. I. A.'

The subjects of the Grecian tragedies which have reached us are of the horrible cast, and we have reason to think, that those which are lost were of the same kind. The author's object is to investigate the cause, and he refers it to the savage manners of a nation so much celebrated, in other respects, for its elegance and taste. Horace certainly was of a different opinion, and recommends tenderness, and a regard to the feelings of the spectators, in these exhibitions, from the examples of the Greek tragedians. Mr. Preston, however, remarks, that, though Medea does not kill her children on the stage, yet their cries and dying groans are heard, which are almost equally affecting; and he adduces so many traits of inhu-

manity in the tranſactions of the Grecian heroes, that we are almoſt induced to ſtyle them a ſavage race, and to affirm, that their elegance and delicacy appeared only in their ſtyle and in their architecture.

'It will here be ſaid that we have remains of the Grecian ſculpture, which ſhew the moſt cultivated mind, the moſt refined and delicate taſte. Every thing is chaſte and temperate, correct and beautiful; there appears nothing, to ſhow, that either the artiſt himſelf, or the models from which he wrought, could have been poſſeſſed by that ferocity of ſpirit, or animated by that cruel or ſanguinary diſpoſition, which I attribute to the Grecian moral character. The Apollo of Belvidere, the Medicean Venus, the groupe of Niobe and her children, beſpeak minds governed by ſober judgement, awake to the fineſt feelings, and fertile in the faireſt ideas. The Greeks excelled no leſs in painting than in ſculpture; and though ages on ages have rolled away ſince thoſe pictures, which were the admiration of antiquity, have been loſt to the world, a learned Roman, who poſſeſſed an exquiſite taſte for the fine arts, has left us a copious and moſt intereſting account of the principal Grecian painters and their works. From the details of the elder Pliny, it appears, that the ſubjects of the Grecian painting were, in general, as tender, ſoft, and engaging, as the ſubjects of their tragic drama were terrible and afflictive. Suppoſe all traces of the Grecian hiſtory and poetry annihilated, and that we knew and judged of them, only, by ſome of their ſtatues, and thoſe chapters in the thirty-fifth book of Pliny that relate to their painters; ſhould we heſitate to pronounce, from the ſweetneſs of the countenances, and the attitudes and characters of the figures in what remains, and from the deſcriptions of what is loſt, that the Greeks were a people, not only of ſenſibility, but even of a mild and tender diſpoſition.

'How can we reconcile the foregoing phænomena?—Painting and ſculpture, directly, as their chief object, exhibit the body; hiſtory and poetry, the actions, characters, and ſentiments of man. As the ſtern and ferocious predominated among the Greeks in the latter, ſo the beautiful and the graceful, in an equal meaſure, prevailed in the former; and Greece was the peculiar region of fine forms. In fact, as we approximate to the eaſt, we ſeem to approach the favourite ſeats of Venus and the Graces; where human nature produces and rears her children with a partial care and diſtinguiſhed fondneſs.' P. 20.

This ferocious character our author aſcribes to the early hordes which firſt invaded Greece, and their predatory warfare both by ſea and land. But could ſuch enterpriſing ſavages ever have been Egyptians? He afterwards engages in the inquiry reſpecting the ſource of pleaſure or of intereſt in horrible ſcenes, but contributes little to what former authors

have observed. We have added the word 'interest,' as it seems the true origin. Nothing is so uncomfortable as vacuity; and the less cultivated mind, not awake to the charms of elegant delight, will be roused only by horror. The blow of a stone will alone excite the sensibility of an Oscar.

'III. An Essay on the Variations of English Prose, from the Revolution to the present Time. By Thomas Wallace, A. B. and M. R. I. A.; to which was adjudged the Gold Prize Medal proposed by the Royal Irish Academy for the best Essay on that Subject.'

The author, with great taste and propriety, traces the variations of English style from the rugged phraseology and inverted arrangement of that of our earliest prose-writers, to the more polished, though too highly laboured, triads of Johnson. We will select an advantageous specimen.

'With Addison and his contemporaries originated the first variation that occurred, subsequent to the Revolution, in the composition of English prose. Though the diffuse style still continued to prevail, it was no longer the loose, inaccurate, and clumsy style, by which the compositions of his predecessors were disgraced. So great, indeed, was the improvement, and so striking the variation introduced by Addison, that he who compares the productions of this elegant writer with those of the best writers of [16]88, will find it difficult to avoid surprise, how, with such precedents before him, he could have risen at once to a degree of excellence in style which constitutes him a model for imitation. The forced metaphor, the dragging clause, the harsh cadence, and the abrupt close, are all of them strangers to the works of Addison. In the structure of his sentences, though we may sometimes meet marks of negligence, yet we can seldom find the unity of a sentence violated by ideas crowded together, or the sense obscured by an improper connection of clauses. Though, like his predecessors, he frequently uses two words to express one idea, yet, in this instance, he is less faulty than they; and, among the variations introduced by him, we must reckon a more strict attention to the choice of words, and more precision in the use of them.

'Of figurative language, Addison has always been acknowledged the most happy model. He was, indeed, the first of the English prose writers who were equally excellent in the choice and in the management of their figures. Of those who preceded him, it has been observed that they were frequently unhappy in both instances; that their metaphors either were such as tended rather to degrade their subject than to give it dignity and elevation; or that when they were well chosen, they were spoiled by the manner in which they were conducted, being detained under the pen until their spirit evaporated, or traced until the likeness vanished. Addison avoided both faults; his metaphors are selected with care and taste,

or rather seem to spring spontaneously from his subject; they are exhibited to the mind but for a moment, that the leading traits of similitude may be observed, while minute likenesses are disregarded —like those flashes of electric fire which often illumine a summer's night, they shed a vivid, though a transient, lustre over the scene, and please rather by the brightness with which they gild the prospect, than the accuracy with which they shew its beauties.

'Should it be doubted, whether the improvement of style which took place in the time of Addison—that variation which substituted uniform and correct neatness in composition, for what was loose, inaccurate, and capricious, be justly attributed to him—the doubt will vanish, when it is remembered that in no work prior to his time is an equal degree of accuracy or neatness to be found; and even among those periodical papers to which the most eminent of his cotemporary writers contributed, the Clio of Addison stands eminently conspicuous. It was, indeed, from the productions of that classic and copious mind that the public seems to have caught the taste for fine writing, which has operated from that time to the present, and which has given to our language perhaps the greatest degree of elegance and accuracy of which it is susceptible—for if any thing is yet to be added to the improvement of the English style, it must be more nerve and muscle, not a nicer modification of form or feature.' P. 56.

The peculiarities of Dr. Johnson's style are well developed and explained.

'IV. On the Poetical Character of Dr. Goldsmith. By the Rev. Archdeacon Burrowes, late Fellow of Trinity-College, Dublin, and M. R. I. A.'

Goldsmith was too simple and unaffected to require a minute and recondite analysis; pleasing, popular, and tender, he skimmed the surface; and, when he fancied himself profound, was only pleasing. Our author unravels this unentangled skein of silk with too much anxiety; but his analysis is calculated to please; and when we follow Goldsmith, we forget the minuteness or necessary rigor of criticism. It is the butterfly, which, though it wanders in its flight, we cannot reprehend for error or for eccentricity.

'In the lines of Goldsmith we have no elaborate equipoise between the parts where the latter half is made an epigram upon the former. His only artificial ornament is alliteration, which occurs too frequent for us to suspect its being casual. He continues the same thought often beyond the line, and sometimes beyond the couplet. Hence it happens that his verses are natural, and their harmony varied, though it must be observed also, that the pauses in sound do not always coincide with those in sense. His lines are often eked out by feeble and expletive parts adjoined, such as *more*,

between, here, so, and several weak terminations and prosaic verses might be pointed out in his writings, as where he tells us that the morals of the Swiss *are but low*—that the train of Auburn at proud men's doors *beg a little bread*—or that nations, *though very poor, may still be very blest*. His rhyming words are generally monosyllables of the most familiar class. The word *fire* rhymes in two couplets out of three in his Traveller—the word *round* rhymes three times in eleven couplets in his Deserted Village. Goldsmith, in this respect, did not sufficiently consult variety; but he possesses those happy arts of engaging the reader's attention to some beauty, or interesting his affections by some pathetic image, and the fault which is not perceived is as if it did not exist.

'Goldsmith's faults are all faults of apparent inadvertence; but would his poems be more excellent had he studied to correct them to greater minuteness? He might have arranged his thoughts in regular climax—he might have given us contrasted sentiments and parallel phrases—he might have destined forcible words to important places—he might have condensed matter for concluding couplets. But his works would have been elaborate—his diction pompous—his versification measured. He would have forfeited his easy simplicity. Some readers would not so well understand him, and perhaps none so much delight in him. At present he is a general favourite, and those who think his excellence is of that common nature which any person might reach, have only to make the attempt, and thus convince themselves of his merit. Paradoxical as it may seem, there is no style of writing more difficult of attainment than that which is natural.' P. 100.

The department of antiquities is barren, containing only three articles.

'I. A Letter from William Caulfield Lennon, Esq. to the Right Honourable the Earl of Charlemont, President of the Royal Irish Academy, &c.'

In this letter is a short description, illustrated with two plates, of an image taken from a pagoda at Bangalore. It is the figure of the Indian Lechemy, the goddess of fertility, and evidently the prototype of the Grecian Ceres. An Indian fable is subjoined, with a translation; but, after the specimen of Indian fables, which we lately had occasion to offer, in our survey of the works of Sir William Jones, this would not appear very interesting.

'II. An Account of some Manuscript Papers which belonged to Sir Philip Hoby, Knight, who filled several important Offices in the Reign of King Edward the Sixth, and which are at present the Property of William Hare, Esq. one of the Representatives in Parliament for the City of Cork, by the Reverend Mr. Hinckes, of Cork, communicated by the President.'

Theſe papers are authentic, and highly important. They commence in 1539, and terminate in 1556; but the greater number were written between the years 1548, and 1550. Sir Philip Hoby accompanied Sir T. Wyatt in the embaſſy in 1539; and the ſtate-papers are very numerous and intereſting.

'III. Account of four circular Plates of Gold found in Ireland. By Ralph Ouſley, M. R. I. A.'

Theſe plates are not of great importance. As Ireland now produces gold, it probably was found to do ſo in former times.

The firſt and fourth Books of the Odes of Horace, tranſlated into Engliſh Verſe. 8*vo.* 2*s.* 6*d.* Hatchard. 1799.

It has been aſſerted that only that poetry is good, which will bear the teſt of tranſpoſition, which will remain beautiful when the harmony of its ſtructure is deſtroyed. Like all other general rules, this alſo has its exceptions. It is true with reſpect to the higher poets: their beauties are jewels, rendered indeed more beautiful by arrangement, but ſtill jewels, however diſplaced. The gold of Homer may be melted and re-caſt by a clumſy artiſt; but it will ſtill be ſterling metal. Not ſo the *poemets* of Catullus and Horace; theſe are valuable not for the materials but for the workmanſhip, like filagree ſilver, which, though thin and almoſt valueleſs, becomes ineſtimable by the nicety with which it is wrought.

The fate of tranſlations has therefore depended leſs upon the ſkill of the tranſlator than upon the nature of the original. Homer and Virgil are well known to our unlettered countrymen, though the unequal vigour of Dryden ill repreſents the even ſtatelineſs of the Æneid, and though the beauty and the ſtrength and the ſimplicity of Homer are completely loſt under the gaudineſs of his Engliſh dreſs. Thus alſo the common verſion of Taſſo, deſpicable as it is, has made his ſtory familiar; and we are delighted with Arioſto, though he is paralyſed by the torpedo touch of his tranſlator, and hobbles feebly upon rhyme-crutches: but no learning, no labour, no genius, have yet ſufficed to make the unlearned comprehend the beauties of Horace. As we obſerved formerly of Catullus, theſe beauties are like the '*open ſeſame*' of the Arabian Tales: we may tranſlate them accurately; but, when the words are changed, the ſpell is broken. Premiſing theſe remarks upon the difficulty of the preſent attempt, we proceed to examine its execution.

In the firſt ode the

> Gaudentem patrios findere ſarculo
> Agros——

is ill rendered, as the character described in it is confounded with that in the preceding lines. The word *mox* is sadly dilated in two lines,

'Scarce reach'd this blest abode of leisure,
Content, tranquillity, and pleasure,'

and this amplification is peculiarly unfortunate; for it is an Hibernicism to say, that a man flies discontented from the abode of content.—*Arbute* is an unpleasant abbreviation of a naturalised word.

In the 29th line of the original, the translator has retained the common reading—*Me* doctarum, &c.—we think improperly: the application of this passage to Mæcenas softens the final flattery, and prepares the way for it.

The second ode is given in stanzas of fourteen lines each; and the periods in the original sapphics suit this arrangement. In the second of these stanzas the trochaïc line is happily introduced. The only part of this ode to which we object is the beginning of the last stanza, where the interrogatory is dropped, and the translator is certain, though Horace was doubtful.

'But say, what deity appears?
What God that youthful semblance wears?
Hail, son of Maïa! Hermes hail!
Propitious pow'r! by thee be paid
The vengeance due to Cæsar's shade:
Oh! let the pray'rs of guilty Rome prevail!
Late may'st thou re-assume thy native skies,
Long may Hesperia bless thy happy reign!
Long may'st thou glad thy people's eyes,
And lead the long triumphal train.
Here, with a sov'reign's honours, claim
A father's more endearing name;
Nor let the Mede, insulting foe,
Securely dare to vaunt, while Cæsar reigns below.' P. 8.

This is a needless and faulty departure from the original: the sixth line also has no parallel in the Latin;—Horace is speaking his own wishes, not the prayers of guilty Rome, which are necessarily implied.

We give the whole of the third ode: it is translated with spirit.

'TO THE SHIP WHICH CARRIED VIRGIL TO ATHENS.

'The goddess of the Cyprian green,
The brothers of the Spartan queen,
Beaming from stars of light a friendly ray,
And he whose pow'r the tempest binds,
Restraining all save western winds,
So guide thee on thy way.

‘ Lov’d bark ! as, to thy duty just,
Thou giv’st once more thy sacred trust,
My absent Virgil, to this anxious heart :
Oh, safe from peril, I implore,
Waft gently to th’ Athenian shore
My soul’s far better part !

‘ Sure oak and triple brass were bound
That hardly mortal’s breast around,
Who first dar’d Ocean’s unknown depths to brave ;
Who first his fragile bark resign’d,
Advent’rous, to the driving wind
And unrelenting wave !

‘ Nor fear’d the blast of Lybia join’d
In conflict with the northern wind,
The wat’ry Hyads, nor loud Auster’s pow’r ;
At whose high bidding, on the deep,
The Adriatic billows sleep,
Or black’ning tempests low’r.

‘ What form of death his soul could awe,
Whose steady eye unalter’d saw
Th’ unwieldy tribes of Ocean tumbling round ?
Who saw unmov’d the swelling deep,
And fell Acroceraunias steep
For many a wreck renown’d ?

‘ In vain creative Wisdom’s hand,
Amid the widely-sever’d land,
In length unsocial pour’d the hoary tides ;
If, heedless of the high decree,
O’er ev’ry interdicted sea
The impious vessel glides.

‘ To suff’ring steel’d, perversely bold,
Man grasps the woe the Gods withhold,
And fondly rushes on forbidden ill :
With fatal fraud, Prometheus won
Th’ ethereal flame : a world undone,
Yet mourns his baleful skill.

‘ Hence, loos’d o’er earth’s fair face to range,
A host of spectres new and strange,
Gaunt famine stalk’d, and fevers fiery race ;
And death, till then a distant foe,
With gradual step advancing slow,
Insatiate urg’d his pace.

‘ Amid the azure void of heaven,
On plumes to mortals never giv’n,

His trackleſs way the Cretan next eſſay'd;
The toil of Hercules defy'd,
Black Acheron's oppoſing tide,
And burſt th' infernal ſhade.

'The darings of the human mind
No awe can check, no limits bind;
To heav'n itſelf our ſenſeleſs pride aſpires,
Nor Jove, ſo faſt our crimes increaſe,
Can give his vengeance pauſe, or ceaſe
To graſp his angry fires.' P. 9.

The epithet *infames* ought to have been preſerved for its ſuppoſed alluſion to the danger of Auguſtus. We alſo wiſh that the vetitum *et* nefas had been the adopted reading.

Ode 4. Alterno terram quatiunt pede, is a harſh phraſe for the light dance of the Graces; and the phraſe, 'ſhake the *echoing* ground,' makes it ſtill ſtronger.

The verſion of the Ode to Pyrrha we forbear to criticiſe. The poet muſt not be cenſured for tranſlating feebly what no poet, perhaps, will ever tranſlate well.

The *ſectis unguibus* in the 6th ode will always have an unpleaſant appearance in Engliſh. Francis made it ſtill more offenſive by converting it into a pert epigrammatic concluſion of the poem.

'TO THALIARCHUS.

'See, Thaliarchus! cloth'd in ſnow,
Soracte riſes white in air;
Keen froſt forbids the ſtream to flow,
And ſcarce the woods their plumy burden bear.

'Haſte! cheer the piercing ſeaſon's cold,
Pile high with wood the blazing hearth;
Let gen'rous wine, four ſummers old,
Flame from the caſk, and crown the board with mirth.

'To heav'n permit the reſt: whoſe will,
When wild winds war with wint'ry ſeas,
Can lull them to a calm—ſo ſtill,
That not a murmur waves the trembling trees.

'Inquire not of to-morrow's doom:
To-day account a certain gain:
While time yet ſpares thy youthful bloom,
Nor ſcorn ſweet love, nor ſhun the choral train.

'By day let martial fields delight,
Where youth th' athletic conteſt prove;
And, through the ſilent hours of night,
Soft whiſper'd ſounds, and ſighs of murm'ring love.

'The laugh, that, bursting from the shade,
Betrays the fair-one's secret stand,
The love-pledge from her arm convey'd,
Or snatch'd, half-yielded, from her struggling hand.' P. 23.

This is well translated, particularly the concluding stanza.

As we proceed, we find more reason to be pleased with our author. The ode beginning with, Quem virum aut heroa, is versified with strength; and the succeeding one to Lydia deserves praise.

'Quick o'er my cheek the shifting passions fly,'

is particularly happy. In the fourteenth an ambiguity occurs.

'Hark to the melancholy sound
From thy bare side, of oars bereft,
Thy tall mast cleft with many a wound,
And every yard the blast has left.' P. 33.

A mast cannot be 'cleft with many a wound;' and the last line may be construed, 'the blast has left every yard.'

Of the prophecy of Nereus we have a fine and rapid translation. One of the finest odes in the Spanish language is an imitation of this by Luis de Leon; the river Tagus is the prophet, and Rodrigo the ravisher.

The 31st is rendered less happily.

'For me, with herbs and olives fed,
The fields a simpler banquet spread.
But grant me this, O power divine!
T' enjoy the store already mine—
The little which my toils have gain'd,
Till age approach with guilt unstain'd,
With health unbroken, mind entire,
Nor yet unstrung the sweet-voic'd lyre.' P. 64.

The six last lines are lamentably inferior to the exquisite neatness of the original.

'Frui paratis et valido mihi,
Latoë, dones; ac, precor, integrâ
Cum mente, nec turpem senectam
Degere, nec citharâ carentem.'

The original contains no expression equivalent to 'the little which my toils have gain'd,' which, we may add, implies an erroneous idea.

The third ode of the fourth book is one of the very few translated by Atterbury. We copy both translations.

'TO MELPOMENE.

'Bright Muse! when o'er the natal hour
Thy mild eye sheds its gentle pow'r,

Thy favour'd vot'ry ne'er shall claim,
On Corinth's field, the wreath of Fame :—
Not his th' athletic champion's meed;
Not his to rein the foaming steed;
Not his th' Achaian car to guide,
The victor's pomp, the victor's pride!
High on the capitol's proud brow
Let war her laurell'd chieftain shew
Triumphant o'er the tyrant's pride,
Whose vaunts his country's pow'r defy'd!
But Tivoli's deep-murm'ring floods,
And awful glooms, and waving woods
Shall consecrate, their shades among,
The sov'reign of th' Æolian song.
Me, mighty Rome's majestic race
Among her bards have deign'd to place:
And, while with fond delight I stand
Encircled by the sacred band,
E'en Envy sheaths her pois'nous fang,
Or I forget to feel the pang.
Pierian Muse! whose touch inspires
Thy golden harp's sweet murm'ring wires!
Who to the silent dolphin's throat
Could'st give the swan's enchanting note!
Grac'd by thy smile, I move along
Distinguish'd by the passing throng;
Who, pointing, mark with earnest gaze
The bard whom Latium's lyre obeys:
By thee, my lyre—my life were giv'n;
By thee, I draw the breath of heav'n.
And, if my numbers pleasing be,
Melpomene! they please by thee.' P. 88.

The bishop's translation is, we think, superior, except in the conclusion.

'He, on whose natal hour the queen
  Of verse hath smil'd, shall never grace
The Isthmian gauntlet, or be seen
  First in the fam'd Olympic race.

'He shall not, after toils of war,
  And taming haughty monarch's pride,
With laurel'd brows conspicuous far,
  To Jove's Tarpeian temple ride.

'But him, the streams which warbling flow
  Rich Tibur's fertile vales along,
And shady groves, his haunts, shall know
  The master of th' Æolian song.

'The sons of Rome, majestic Rome!
Have placed me in the poets' quire,
And Envy, now, or dead and dumb,
Forbears to blame what they admire.

'Goddess of the sweet-sounding lute,
Which thy harmonious touch obeys,
Who can'st the finny race, though mute,
To cygnet's dying accents raise!

'Thy gift it is, that all, with ease,
Me prince of Roman lyrics own,
That, while I live, my numbers please,
If pleasing is thy gift alone.'

The fourth ode is of a higher class, and its excellence is of a nature more susceptive of translation. But here the present translator has failed.

'As soars the regal bird supreme,
Who waits by Jove's immortal throne,
Grasping the lightning's forky gleam,
And rules the realms of air alone;
Thus grac'd by him who rules the skies
For bright-hair'd Ganymede, his Phrygian prize—
(Rous'd by paternal fire and youthful might,
Soon from the nest he wings his flight.
Stern winter past, the fresh'ning gales of spring
In untry'd heights his ruffling plumes uphold;
Soon in the shadow of his awful wing
Destruction hovers o'er the trembling fold:
E'er long, with thirst of prey and combat stung,
He grasps th' indignant snake, and dares his hissing tongue).

'As the youthful lion stalks
Tremendous o'er the meadow's bloom,
(The goat amidst her flow'ry walks
Shudd'ring, starts, and waits her doom;)
Thus dreadful from the Alpine height
Burst Drusus on the Gauls' astonish'd sight.
(The rites obscure that mark the barb'rous race
The raptur'd Muse disdains to trace:
She sings not whence the rude Vindelic band
And Rhætian fierce, since time his course hath roll'd,
The thund'ring pole-axe wield with ready hand,
Like Scythian Amazons renown'd of old,)
But soon their tribes the youthful foe revere,
Check'd in Dominion's height and Vict'ry's proud career.

'Soon their awe-ſtruck hoſts deſcry
What godlike pow'rs the breaſt inſpire,
Where Cæſar's fond parental eye
Directs a Nero's native fire.
Still from the gen'rous and the bold
A race is form'd of brave and gen'rous mould;
Their fires high ſtrain, the ſteer, the courſer prove,
Fierce eagles breed no trembling dove.
But, Education! thy benign control
Muſt call the ſpark of native vigour forth,
With ſteady honour fortify the ſoul,
And fix the energies of inborn worth;
Elſe flows the ſtream of anceſtry in vain,
And blots of foul diſgrace its lucid current ſtain.

'Queen of cities! wouldſt thou trace
The praiſe to Nero's lineage due?
What deeds of fame their ſtory grace!
What hours of triumph riſe to view!
Let Metro's waves exulting ſwell,
Let vanquiſh'd Aſdrubal their prowefs tell;
Or that bleſt dawn when firſt fair glory's day
On Latium ſmil'd with orient ray!
Then from the land the night of horror fled,
When bath'd in blood, with ruin at his ſide,
The Punic chief his impious ſquadrons led
O'er many a city's deſolated pride—
Wild as the whirlwind ſweeps the madding flood,
Fierce as the ruthleſs flame devours the ravag'd wood.' P. 90.

The '————— mox in ovilia
Demiſit hoſtem vividus impetus,'

is very unlike the pompous and ſwollen image in the verſion. The ſecond ſtanza begins feebly, and the ſcene of the ſimilè is twice introduced. We have the lion ſtalking over the meadow's bloom, and the goat amid her flowery walks. The proſaic parentheſis of the original it was impoſſible to render well; we wiſh the tranſlator had omitted it; the paſſage is ſuſpicious, and has been, by ſome commentators, condemned; the awkwardneſs of the digreſſion, the word *obarmet*, and the *ſed* following the parentheſis, where the ſenſe requires *et*, concur to juſtify the condemnation. Two lines miſerably *dilute* the brevity of 'Fortes creantur fortibus.' The laſt ſtanza that we have quoted is alſo a weak expanſion of the original. This is the danger of tranſlation; this wire-drawing, this Procruſtes torture! Many, indeed moſt poets, are improved by having their meaning condenſed; but none can endure to be lengthened.

This is the characteristic fault of the present version. It is not, however, destitute of merit; and it deserves the praise of free and flowing language, and harmonious versification through all its variety of metres. A more accurate translation might certainly be obtained by an adoption of our lyrical rhymeless metres: we believe, with Cowper, that to translate accurately in rhyme is utterly impossible.

A familiar Survey of the Christian Religion, and of History as connected with the Introduction of Christianity, and with its Progress to the present Time. Intended primarily for the Use of young Persons of either Sex, during the Course of Public or of Private Education. By Thomas Gisborne, A.M. 8vo. 8s. Boards. Cadell *and* Davies. 1799.

THE neglect of a due attention to religion, in great schools, is sensibly felt by all who have had the benefit, as it is called, of a classical education; and it is, we fear, too true a remark, that 'many young persons, if summoned from seminaries of repute to a public examination, would give a better account of the fabled wanderings of Ulysses and Æneas, than of the heaven-directed journeyings of Moses and St. Paul.' Many circumstances, among which may be reckoned the custom of treating the English Bible as a book fit only for vulgar boys, contribute to nourish this error. To introduce better ideas on this subject, the present work is published; and it is hoped that, by a familiar survey of religion from the earliest to the present times, youthful attention may be excited, and that young people will feel as much pleasure in tracing the progress of truth, as in musing on the idle tales of the heathen mythology.

The plan cannot be too much commended; and, though in the execution of it the capacity of a young reader may not have been sufficiently considered, the work may, by a different class, be studied with considerable advantage. It may be put into the hands of parents in general, to give them a connected view of the history of the Old and New Testament; and the students at the university intended for orders may find this abridgement useful to them in their pursuits. For young people at schools, the language is sometimes too difficult; and the reasoning is not sufficiently adapted to their capacities. The style is, we might say, too *sermonical*; and it will be no small drudgery to them to give an account of the paragraphs assigned by the master for their daily task. All who write for the young should remember the anecdote of Moliere and his old housekeeper; and, if the author of this work will hear boys read detached passages, and mark the words which they do not understand, he will find his pains recompensed by the pleasure

which ſuch an exerciſe is likely to afford him, and by the improvements which it will ſuggeſt for this and his future writings.

The writer begins the hiſtory with the creation of man in 'primitive uprightneſs and purity;' follows him in his fall; notices the deluge, the call of Abraham, the ſelection of the Jews; and gives a conciſe account of the books of the Old Teſtament. The books of the New Teſtament are noticed in the ſame manner: the doctrines and evidences of the Chriſtian religion are briefly ſtated and examined; ſtriking features in the character of our Saviour are pointed out for imitation; and the hiſtory of Chriſtianity, from the times of the apoſtles to the preſent days, is given in three chapters. The church eſtabliſhment is vindicated; and, in the concluſion, the young are guarded againſt infidelity, and exhorted to cultivate Chriſtian graces from Chriſtian motives.

From this view of the contents of the volume, it is evident that little room can be given for any particular ſubject; and there is not much novelty either in the ſentiments or in their arrangement. The writer purſues in an even courſe the train of his ideas, as they would naturally occur upon ſuch an outline: he explains difficulties in the uſual manner, occaſionally introducing judicious obſervations.

We will ſelect ſome inſtances in the latter claſs, which give a favourable idea of the author's general train of thinking. With regard to the faults of perſons inſpired, he ſuggeſts the following queſtion.

'Can we then diſcover no one advantage likely to reſult from the occaſional ſelection of an unworthy object for the reception of theſe peculiar favours? One benefit ſeems obviouſly to preſent itſelf to our conſideration. We learn the momentous leſſon, that it is neither inſpiration, nor prophetic knowledge, nor the power of working miracles, which can lead to ſalvation; but a life exerciſed in the fear and the love of God. It is to be obſerved, that the divine juſtice has uſually diſplayed itſelf in the ſignal puniſhment, in this world, of the guilty wretch, whom not even the poſſeſſion of the peculiar favours of God had ſubdued unto holineſs. Balaam died by the hand of thoſe whom he had beguiled into idolatry: Judas Iſcariot by his own.' P. 62.

The young cannot be too often reminded of the diſtinction between courage and fortitude, the qualities which peculiarly diſtinguiſh ſavage from civiliſed life.

'Courage is a quality which obtains from mankind much higher praiſe than it deſerves. In conſequence of its obvious utility it is commonly permitted without inquiry to take its place among the virtues. But, conſidered in itſelf, it has no more an inherent title to be denominated a virtue than bodily ſtrength, or ſwiftneſs, or than

wit, or reason. It is an instrument: and becomes the object of approbation or of disapprobation (for in this case as in others we transfer to the quality, according to the ordinary use of language, the praise or blame which belongs to the agent) solely according to the principles upon which it is cultivated and employed. When natural fortitude is cultivated by its possessor for the sake of promoting the glory of God and the welfare of his creatures; and is exerted in the face of danger for the purpose of promoting that glory and that welfare; we behold it with reverence. Such was the fortitude of Jesus Christ. In this sense his whole life was a demonstration of his fortitude. Several of those particulars in his conduct, which have been cited as proofs of his veracity, might be repeated as shining examples of religious magnanimity. As the hour of his death drew nigh, and afterwards when the fatal period had now overtaken him, the manifestations of his magnanimity were numerous and matchless.' P. 348.

On the ruin of the eastern churches, by the rage of Mohammedan superstition, it is justly remarked that—

' At the close of the eighteenth century Christian Europe has still the same awful scene to contemplate: and may read in the fate of these once highly favoured regions the judgements which await herself, unless, renouncing her corruptions, she turns in purity of faith and practice to him who " is no respecter of persons." P. 489.

On the infidelity of the present time it is natural to expect a digression; and the subject is introduced, immediately after the mention of the suppression of the order of the Jesuits, in the following manner.

' A storm was in the mean time gathering against Christianity itself. In England there had arisen a succession of sceptical or deistical writers, who had in various ways carried on, with little apparent concert, their attacks against the religion of Christ. Some assailed the outworks, some the strong holds; some proceeded openly; more, covertly and in disguise. If, on the one hand, they had in many instances weakened or subverted the faith of the ignorant, the unsuspecting, or the vicious; they had called forth, on the other, such exertions of piety and learning in the friends and for the vindication of Christianity, as in effect to have benefited the cause which they were solicitous to injure. Their publications speedily crossed the channel; and found on the continent, particularly in France, hands ready to sharpen and to brandish every weapon with which they should be furnished. It now appears from an accumulation of unquestionable documents, and more especially from the acknowledged works and correspondence of Frederic king of Prussia; that Frederic, to whom the title of Great will henceforth be only a deeper brand of infamy; that the foreign enemies of the

Gospel, far from limiting their efforts to desultory and unconnected attacks, have during many years been united in one firm, widely-extended, and regularly-organised confederation, for the express purpose of exterminating by fraud and by force the name of Christianity from the earth. In the doctrinal corruption, and the degrading superstition, by which the religion of Christ was disfigured and polluted in the countries where their principal machinations were pursued; and in the political circumstances of that kingdom, where the meditated explosion took place; they found advantages almost beyond the power of computation. Of the events which have recently passed, and are still passing before our eyes, the termination and the consequences are yet in the bosom of providence. Judging from the present appearances of worldly affairs, and, I think we may humbly add, from the word of prophecy; there seems little reason to believe that even that corrupt form of Christianity, on which the blow has fallen, will prove to have received either a mortal or a permanent wound: a wound sufficient to prevent it from exercising at a future period, by a final trial, of short and limited duration, but of unparalleled severity, the faith and constancy of the universal protestant church. But with respect to genuine Christianity, that religion "against which the gates of hell shall not prevail," we know that every effort of human guile and human malice is but an additional link in that chain of events, by which the enemies of God are unconsciously forwarding his purposes: an additional step in that determined progression, by which, amidst the shock of nations and the convulsion of empires, "the kingdoms of this world shall become the kingdoms of our Lord and of his Christ; and he shall reign for ever and ever." P. 531.

In this, as in the general accounts of modern infidelity, there is a mixture of truth and error. The grounds of attack, which the infidels seised with justice, are not considered; and it is not recollected that there must be scavengers to carry away the dirt accumulated by ages. Popery had established itself by fraud and force; and who can lament that they who resisted the light of truth and revelation, and persecuted their Christian brethren, saw their power overthrown by means similar to those by which it had been established?

We were surprised to find in this work, as a proof of Christ's divinity, the words in the epistle to the Hebrews, 'he made the worlds,' as we cannot imagine the writer to be ignorant that the term *worlds* is not in the original; and, in the accumulation of various expressions, the passage in Timothy, 'God manifest in the flesh,' is used without any hint that it is a very doubtful text. The cause of truth cannot be supported by weak arguments: it is an advantage to the adversary to point out inaccuracies, as he insinuates, from an error in one place, that the whole doctrine may rest upon an unsubstantial foun-

dation. We highly commend, however, our author's cautions against Paley's gospel morality, which is indeed, 'in several material points, liable to just objection.'

On the whole, though this work may not afford any additional information to the religious world, it is another proof of the excellent intentions of the writer, whose life is employed in the pursuit and communication of religious truth.

The History of the Politics of Great-Britain and France, from the Time of the Conference at Pillnitz to the Declaration of War against Great-Britain. With an Appendix, containing a Narrative of the Attempts made by the British Government to restore Peace. By Herbert Marsh, Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge. 2 Vols. 8vo. 11s. Marsh. 1800.

IN the respectable writer of this work, administration has gained a powerful advocate. The motives for the publication are highly honourable to the author, and entitle him, for his intentions at least, whatever may be thought of the execution of his plan, to the gratitude of the British public. For some years before the war, Mr. Marsh had fixed his residence in Leipzig, where he was very laudably employed in translating the introduction of Michaelis to the New Testament, and preparing the learned and judicious notes with which he has accompanied the first part of that useful work. During a short residence in England, before the commencement of the war, his translation was published at Cambridge; and he returned to Germany to complete his original design, and prepare three more volumes for the English student in divinity. But he did not confine himself to his Michaelis; for he sent over to England his critical letters to archdeacon Travis; and, being frequently in company where Great-Britain was treated with disrespect for her interference in French politics, and observing that insinuations to her disadvantage were propagated with great assiduity in many of the German papers of intelligence, he determined to investigate, with his usual accuracy, the grounds for these calumnies, and to make the conduct of his country, from the famous treaty of Pillnitz to the declaration of war by France, the particular object of his researches. With this view he studied all the public documents that could be produced relative to the conduct of Great-Britain and France in that period, and compared them with the language, correspondence, and actions, of the principal agents in both countries. The inquiry produced in his mind a conviction that France was culpable in the origin of this unhappy contest; and he supports his opinion by such arguments as cannot easily be overthrown. These he published first in the

German language, of which he is a complete master; and, for the information of his countrymen, he has re-produced them in an English form. The effect of the publication in Germany was very great in repressing the calumnies against this nation; and the judicious arrangement of documents and facts will make the work almost a necessary text-book to every one who wishes to reason accurately on this interesting topic.

To enable our readers to form a true judgement of the contents of this volume, as well as to place before them in proper order the chief topics on which the controversy rests, we present them with the following abridgement of the writer's summary.

1. The British government took no part in the conference at Pillnitz in August, 1791; and afterwards, in the same year, positively and unequivocally refused to join the coalition against France.

2. At the close of the same year assistance was sent by the earl of Effingham, the governor of Jamaica, to the colonists at St. Domingo; and our court refused the offer of that island from such of the inhabitants as were highly dissatisfied with the French government.

3. When Louis the Sixteenth notified his acceptance of the new constitution to all the European courts, our court was one of the first to answer, and in very respectful terms, while several either took no notice of the notification, or answered it with disrespect.

4. In January, 1792, a reduction of our military establishment was ordered: it was resolved that the Hessian subsidy should not be renewed; and taxes to a considerable amount were abolished.

5. When France declared war against Austria on the 20th of April, 1792, the French minister wrote to his court on the 28th, that the British cabinet was resolved to preserve neutrality; for which a letter of thanks was sent to his majesty by the king of France on the 1st of May. When our court, on the 25th of May, at the request of the French minister, prohibited all British subjects from acting against France, the French government again expressed its satisfaction.

6. The proclamation of the 21st of May, against seditious publications and societies, was a mere matter of national police, and was so considered by the French government, which, in the month of August, by the medium of Le Brun, testified its conviction of the friendly disposition and conduct of our cabinet towards France.

7. The refusal of our court to mediate between France and the coalesced powers, unless its mediation should be solicited by all parties, was not a proof of a hostile disposition, and was not regarded in that light even by the French.

8. On the alarm in France, in July, 1792, in consequence of an equipment in the channel for some naval evolutions, the note written by M. Chauvelin was declared by the national assembly to be a sufficient proof of the pacific inclinations of our cabinet.

9. The recall of our ambassador from Paris, after the deposition of the king, to whom alone he had been accredited, was not, nor was considered by the French as, a breach of neutrality, especially as the same refusal was made in this as in the preceding year to join the coalition.

10. In November, 1792, after the conquest of Savoy, the Austrian Netherlands, and a part of Germany, the rulers of France threw off the mask, promulgated the infamous decree of the 19th of November to assist insurrection, received deputies from British societies, kept emissaries in England to propagate sedition, and fitted out a fleet three months before Great-Britain began to arm.

11. On the meeting of parliament in December, all measures were defensive, and the war rested on the will of the French, not the inclination of the British government.

12. Continued insults followed, on the part of the French. Their minister for foreign affairs threatened an appeal to the British nation: the marine minister publicly proclaimed the intention of a descent in Britain: a considerable addition was made to the number of French ships in commission; and, before the middle of January, 1793, the order was signed for the invasion of Holland.

13. Our ministers showed no unwillingness to negotiate, as appeared from their conduct to Chauvelin and Maret; and the terms proposed to the French had no reference whatever to any particular form of government in France.

14. The French cabinet was bent upon war; and the specious negotiation was intended only to amuse the British government. The French were deluded with the idea of general disaffection in our country, and persuaded themselves, from the forward state of their navy, that an invasion would be practicable, and that victory and plunder would be the necessary consequences.

15. The events of the fourteen days previous to the declaration of war cannot be numbered among the causes of it. The intended negotiation of Dumouriez was merely to amuse a little longer the British and Dutch governments. The national convention refused to wait the issue of it, and declared war unanimously against Britain and Holland.

16. The pretexts alleged by the French in justification of hostilities were futile or false, or were events which had not taken place before war was determined on.

Lastly, the Girondists and Jacobins agreed in the declara-

tion of hostilities; and by accusing each other of being the authors of the war, tacitly acknowledge that it did not arise from the British government.

Hence Mr. Marsh concludes that every shadow of doubt must be removed with regard to 'the origin of the war; and that it was a war of aggression, of injury, and of insult, on the part of France, as well in the motives which gave it birth as in the open declaration of it;' while, on the part of Britain, it was 'just and necessary, as being strictly a war of self-defence.'

As far as a question of this magnitude can be determined by the evidence already given to the public, we agree in general with our author's deductions: but the state of Europe from 1790 to 1793 was too much deranged by the ferment in France to suffer us to give all that force to public avowals, either in proclamations or speeches, which is necessary to remove from our minds every doubt relative to the intentions of the contending parties. France was in the highest state of agitation; a formidable coalition was armed against her; treason pervaded her territories; and the cabinet of her sovereign was an object of greater dread than that of the most hostile court. In such a state many circumstances might contribute to excite alarms. It was her interest to be at peace with Great-Britain; yet open enmity might be less dangerous than concealed neutrality. In England her emigrants were caressed in the house of commons: the most violent speeches were made respecting her attempts to rectify her government, and allay the outrages which had arisen from internal commotion. This part of the argument is too much overlooked by our author: he has given us the substance of several speeches and reports in the national convention and assembly, but forgets the applause with which the furious invectives of a Burke were received by the friends of administration. It was difficult on both sides to avoid the war; and to preserve neutrality was, perhaps, on the part of Great-Britain almost impossible. The effervescence of passion has now subsided; in a few years more the views of the coalesced powers will be clearly developed: we must at present be satisfied with the conviction that little blame is imputable to our court on the origin of the war, if we have the whole evidence before us; and, whichever party was originally in fault, all must sincerely join in the wish that both nations would now heartily concur in giving peace to Europe, and would unite their efforts for the happiness, not the destruction, of mankind.

Memoirs of Medicine; including a Sketch of Medical Hiſtory, from the earlieſt Accounts to the Eighteenth Century. By Richard Walker, Eſq. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Johnſon. 1799.

TO paſs a road often trodden is ſeldom a pleaſing taſk. A proſpect animated and various may for a while amuſe the mind, and relieve the tædium and liſtleſsneſs with which we repeatedly perform the ſame duty; but, when this reſource fails, the labour with which it is executed will be proportionally increaſed. A hiſtory of medicine is one of thoſe beaten tracks often followed, where wit and genius are miſapplied, and where few objects ariſe to excite our admiration, and few diſcuſſions can be admitted to relieve the tedious uniformity of the whole. It may, however, be aſked, Where are theſe repeated hiſtories in our own language to be found, except in the introductory lectures of profeſſors, and the elegant comprehenſive pages of Freind, which are limited to one period of the ſcience? The laboured work of Le Clerc is, we believe, yet unknown in an Engliſh verſion, and the hiſtories of ſome foreign profeſſors ſtill remain in the original Latin. So that, though to many this may appear to be a tale twice told, to others it will be a valuable aſſiſtance by tracing the progreſſive improvements of the art which they practiſe, the various impediments thrown in its way, the wanderings and eccentricities of its profeſſors. This aſſiſtance Mr. Walker ably affords. The ſubject itſelf admits little novelty; but the valuable parts are ſelected with judgement, the obſervations are correct and appropriate, and the ſtyle is animated and perſpicuous. Some omiſſions may be noticed; but, on the whole, this hiſtory deſerves very conſiderable commendation. We ſhall add, in ſupport of our opinion, a few ſpecimens.

The ſhort character of Hippocrates is very judicious; and Mr. Walker might have added, to the merit of the Coan phyſician, that of writing in a ſtyle of great ſimplicity and elegance.

'His cuſtom of admitting none to his inſtructions, without the ſolemn introduction of an oath, enforcing not only the utmoſt exertions for its advancement, but a rigid attention to the morality of private life, ſtrongly evinces his perſuaſion of its importance to ſociety at large. But the moſt eſtimable part of his profeſſional character conſtitutes a compleat model of artleſs ſimplicity, ſuperior to the ſpeculating faſhion of his age. For though poſſeſſed of all the learning, and ſkilled in the various philoſophy of Greece, he ſcorned the ſubtilities of that theory, which might withdraw attention from nature, whom he cloſely obſerved, and whoſe dictates he followed with the moſt ſcrupulous humility.

'The works of Hippocrates are to be regarded both as regiſters

of public experience and individual obſervation. But the aggregate of medical knowledge, tranſmitted from his predeceſſors, he had the ſkill to arrange and intermix with his own matter in ſo conſiſtent and uniform a ſtyle, that no elementary work of the ſame date ever ſurpaſſed. The miſcellaneous ſubjects of a conjectural art could not indeed be diſpoſed with all the preciſion and elegance of Ariſtotle's poetics, or the ſublime morality of Plato. Nor would it be reaſonable, in the infancy of ſuch an art, to expect that attention to order and method in writing, which ſucceeding improvements have rendered ſo much more eaſy and obvious. Yet with all the defects that can poſſibly be found in this author, compared with the moſt enlightened of his followers, he muſt ever remain an unrivalled example of honeſt and uſeful induſtry, which ſhould rouſe the bluſh of ſhame in thoſe indolent cavillers, who cenſure his patient prolixity, and oppoſe their own conciſe and ephemeral ſyſtems to the extenſive and ample bounds of his practice.' P. 25.

The ſtate of phyſic, and the degraded office of phyſician in an unpoliſhed period of the Roman republic, have drawn from our author the following ſpirited remarks.

'At this period, Arcagathus, a Peloponneſian, got permiſſion, with ſome difficulty, to open a ſhop in a public part of the city for diſpenſing ſome external remedies, as external diſeaſes were the only ones that were allowed to be publicly cured. In his ſucceſs, however, the ſturdy patriots of the times foreſaw the ſame danger to corporal courage, which threatened the mental firmneſs of the ſtate from a growing taſte for general and polite learning. The ſurgeon was therefore ſoon baniſhed, in company with all the philoſophers of Greece, who had begun to teach their conquerors the ſciences of humanity.

'The moſt ſtrenuous oppoſer of Grecian medicine was Cato the Cenſor, ſo famed from inflexible attachment to primitive manners, as the only ſecurities for preſerving the power and liberty of Rome.

'On whatever grounds this peculiar antipathy may be defended, it will remain a queſtion, whether principles hoſtile to the power and liberty of other nations deſerve to be regarded as laudable motives of public action. Such a query, in this place, can indeed be introduced only in compliance with the claims of equal benevolence, which ſeem to demand all opportunities to be taken of more reaſonably appreciating thoſe qualities, and that conduct, which, ſeen through the dazzling medium of hiſtorical embelliſhment, have too long uſurped the admiration of mankind.

'But it is in our direct province, to notice the barbarous inconſiſtency of the ancient Romans, in baniſhing the profeſſors of an art, who pretended to ſome rule of practice, whilſt they ſubmitted to the rudeſt and moſt ineffectual of its proceſſes. Of this nature was the conduct of Cato himſelf, who joined to the utmoſt indig-

nation againſt medicine as a cultivated ſcience, a reliance on the moſt ridiculous and impotent remedies. His extravagant eulogies on the ſanative powers of cabbage, in the treatiſe he compoſed on agricultural ſubjects, might indeed be accounted for in a way leſs diſgraceful to his underſtanding, than his zeal in perſuading his countrymen to rely on charms and magic ſongs, for the cure of broken bones, in preference to the treatment of any regular practitioner.

'The buſy and warlike enthuſiaſm of the Romans, diminiſhing with the cauſes that gave it birth, at length rendered their favourite employments uſeleſs, and compelled them to ſeek amuſement from the ſuperior ſkill and dexterity of ſtrangers. For this purpoſe they condeſcended to ſtudy the arts of rhetoric and oratory, as peculiarly fitted to promote the ſelfiſh and ambitious views, for which the beſt characters amongſt them were too often diſtinguiſhed. Other ſciences were left to the induſtry and ingenuity of thoſe whom they had enſlaved, and thought beneath their dignity. And here appears the chief cauſe, why their medical practitioners ſo long continued in a ſervile ſtate; and why the art itſelf, in ſpite of its intrinſic importance, was claſſed, in the language of the courtly Virgil, amongſt the *artes mutæ*, or ſilent offices, which became degraded by their application to common uſe.

'It would be eaſy to enlarge on the ill-founded pride, which prevented the Romans from feeling or acknowledging their inferiority in thoſe accompliſhments, that alone conſtitute the real ſuperiority of man. But it is matter of ſurpriſe, that amongſt the cargoes of ſtatues and paintings, and the variety of books, which their conquering generals ſent home from Greece, no thought was beſtowed on the works of Hippocrates, which even Pompey himſelf neglected, in his eagerneſs to diſcover the childiſh antidote of Mithridates. Nor is it leſs ſingular, that, in the multifarious edicts of the ſenate, no notice occurs on the ſubject of public health, at the time when its attention ſeems to have been particularly called to this conſideration, by the public bequeſt to the Roman people of the medical books of Attalus, the Pergamenian king, which he had valued above all his earthly treaſures.' P. 73.

We ſhall conclude with ſome of the writer's juſt obſervations on the preſent ſtate of medicine.

'A ſuperficial view of its preſent ſtate in England diſcovers, amongſt the moſt prominent of theſe circumſtances, the defects of medical education and medical character, in many of thoſe engaged in the profeſſion, who having been early deſtined to a very important office, without any regard to previous qualifications, labour under the conſtant neceſſity of procuring their daily ſupport, by means calculated neither to promote their own progreſſive improvement, nor the comfort and advantage of their patients.

'But beſides a very common and abſurd mode of compenſating

medical attendance, the general inadequate remuneration of medical ſkill, with few exceptions in regard to eminent and ſuperior practitioners, is another cauſe of its rarity; the more ſurpriſing in a country, where induſtry in other employments is rewarded without grudging, and men are daily enriched to exceſs, by occupations that require very little mental exertion, and are wholly exempted from the painful ſameneſs of a life, paſſed in liſtening to tales of miſery in the polluted atmoſphere of ſick chambers.

'In purſuing this ſubject, the compariſons appear defenſible, which contraſt, not only the few inſtances of opulence, but of humble independance acquired by medical practice, with the riches that ennoble the profeſſors of other liberal ſciences, and furniſh a young and unworn mercantile crowd with ample offerings for the ſhrine, at which all pretenſions to modern greatneſs are confirmed.

'Another local and appropriate ſource of defect in this iſland is the venality, which diſpoſes of academical teſtimony on the moſt contemptible terms, and introduces a confuſion into medical diſtinctions, that has long and loudly called for the hand of reſtraint. This abuſe, however, may ſerve to demonſtrate a ſort of excluſive virtue in medicine, which can preſerve any tolerable credit in circumſtances, that would more materially affect that of other profeſſions. For the law would loſe much of its due reſpect, even in judges, if its meaneſt retainer could emblazon his coat with the ermines of the bench; nor would the dignity of archbiſhop, burleſqued by an illiterate curate, fail to diſgrace the authority it was intended to ſupport.' P. 245.

'Amongſt other caſual and external impediments delaying the progreſs of our art, which it would be the common intereſt to remove, muſt be reckoned the irregularity of public ſentiment in matters of health, which has ſeldom been guided by reflexion, or attention to public good. And in this reſpect, it would be impoſſible to queſtion the claims of the preſent age to all the honours of credulity, and the moſt licentious diſdain of reaſon and common ſenſe.

'Much of this pre-eminence belongs to thoſe of the higheſt ranks, whoſe example has its full force on the moſt diſtant undulating circle of ſociety, in every part of which a currency is hourly given, not only to barefaced craft and extravagant profeſſion, but to every chimerical reverie, that ventures to imagine great and ſubſtantial effects produced by powers either not in exiſtence, or wholly inadequate to the pretended purpoſe.

'The ſlighteſt degree of compliance with ſuch follies, in medical practitioners, beyond that of ſilent contempt, doubtleſs merits the reproof of treaſon to the true intereſts of that ſcience, the purity of which it is their duty to preſerve. But no cenſure is equal to their criminal ſervility, who add to ſuch compliance, not only the general meanneſs of flattery, but the baſer condeſcenſion of founding

professional consequence on subserviency to the vices of their patients.' P. 248.

Sermons: To which are subjoined, suitable Hymns. By Edmund Butcher. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Johnson.

THESE sermons are not unpleasing in style, though they do not exhibit the higher graces of composition; and, though they are not dignified with any deep researches into scriptural truths, they are calculated to excite such reflexions as may lead to virtue. The hymns are recommended by the piety which prevails in them rather than by the poetry; yet we can conceive that a family on a Sunday evening, after the perusal of one of these sermons, may be more edified by singing the hymn adapted to it, than by florid or splendid compositions. We shall offer some extracts, which will raise the writer in the estimation of our readers. Speaking of moderation, he makes the following just distinction.

'All our vices are virtues abused. This sole consideration will furnish arguments in favour of this valuable temper, which neither sophistry can undermine, nor experience contradict. Look at the miser! whose parsimony will scarcely allow him bread: within proper limits, his conduct had been laudable œconomy. Mark the contrary character! A generous spirit lies at the foundation of ruinous extravagance. Unchecked by prudence, unrestrained by moderation, liberality degenerates into thoughtless profusion. See an unhappy wretch, whose bosom rankles with envy, and who, to injure a rival, can stoop to the basest measures! A thirst for honourable praise, carried beyond the controul of reason, is really the origin of that humiliating spectacle. Behold a form arrayed in the garb of religion! A cross is pourtrayed on his breast; a Bible is hung at his girdle; he calls himself a disciple of the Prince of Peace: but the fury of a dæmon burns in his eye; the impious anathema vibrates on his tongue; the dagger of death arms his frantic hand. A zeal for God, but tempered with no humanity, and guided by no information, has converted the ardor of piety into the ferocity of the principled bigot.

'Once more, mark yonder lovely form! her arms folded on her bosom; her wan countenance furrowed with grief; her streaming eye fixed on the earth: she sees not the sun; she hears not the music of the groves; she heeds not the accents of friendship and affection; she shuns every human abode; she steals into the gloomy cavern, and draws with the pencil of despair the picture of the God of heaven. Gentle sufferer! what a Moloch thou hast delineated! How piteous thy delusion! What a happy creature hadst thou been, if the deep veneration which saddens thy bosom had been relieved

by juster notions. As it is, piety itself is the foundation of wretchedness.' P. 349.

With regard to political disputes, which so often destroy the peace of families, and make the supporters of the different parties, in the eyes of their opponents, enemies of their country, the following observations deserve in these times to be particularly recommended.

'In society, political interests and opinions will often occupy our minds, and not unfrequently become the theme of conversation.—On such occasions let us be particularly careful to manifest moderation, both of temper and of language—on scarcely any one subject are we less entitled to be positive than on the embarrassing and complex one of politics. No human work is perfect, and considering the multifarious nature of its objects, it is, perhaps, matter of little surprise that the science of human government is in general so defective. None but those who are actually engaged in conducting its higher operations, can be aware of the difficulties with which it is attended; and considering how many turbulent passions are to be regulated, and how many jarring interests are to be reconciled in the vast system of national concerns, a good mind will be disposed to pity, rather than to envy or condemn, the greater part of the rulers of mankind. Let us, my brethren, frequently turn our eyes from feeble, short-sighted men, to that Almighty Ruler who sits at the helm of the universe, and who, from what seems to us almost a chaos, is constantly educing order, virtue, and happiness. This will elevate and fortify our minds; render us easy as to the final issue of things; and dispose us, upon all occasions, to think and speak of our fellow mortals with candour, impartiality, and moderation.' P. 344.

We could transcribe with pleasure some excellent rules for the interpretation of scripture, and just reflexions on bankruptcy and the wild spirit of speculation now prevalent. On the latter subject it is painful for us to observe, that many persons who would willingly be supposed upright and religious, will not scruple to take such measures in the purchase of commodities as may give them the command of the trade. These dishonest proceedings, we understand, have occasioned a great advance of price in an article which materially concerns us; and while a few acquire immoderate profits by the monopoly of paper, pressmen, compositors, booksellers, printers, and authors, are all to suffer in their respective employments. This spirit of speculation, it is to be hoped, will become the subject of higher inquiry; and, if combinations of the poorer classes are severely punished, surely the conspiracy of opulent individuals against the public good ought to be repressed by higher penalties. We wish that preachers in the city would take this hint, that the mask may be plucked from the mean-spirited

monopolist and dastardly slave of trade; and, whether they frequent the church or the meeting, let these men be taught that a transient act of generosity, out of their misgotten thousands, cannot atone for the ruin which they have entailed upon hundreds of industrious families.

General View of the Agriculture of the County of Mid-Lothian: with Observations on the Means of its Improvement. Drawn up for the Consideration of the Board of Agriculture and Internal Improvement, from the Communications of George Robertson, Farmer, at Granton, near Edinburgh, with the additional Remarks of several respectable Gentlemen and Farmers in the County. 8vo. 9s. sewed. Robinsons.

THE report of the state of agriculture in Mid-Lothian, like those of other districts which we have examined, presents us with a variety of interesting facts and modes of management; but, to be rendered highly useful, they require a more systematic arrangement. This must, indeed, always be the case with works which merely profess to collect or ascertain facts, the principal object of the county surveys.

The surveyor appears to have executed his task like a plain practical man, without the aids which are derived from scientific sources. His details are of course chiefly of the practical kind, and few attempts are made to discover how far they depend on just principles. It must, however, be remarked, that the statements of facts are in general clear and satisfactory, and display an extensive knowledge of rural practices.

That persons of the farming class of society are more inclined than they formerly were to read and think of the various subjects of agriculture, cannot be disputed. In this point of view, the following passage is highly honourable to the Mid-Lothian cultivators.

'Their situation,' says the author, 'in this county, is indeed favourable to improvement. In the near neighbourhood of a great town they may have opportunities of acquiring knowledge, which those at a distance cannot. The facility with which they may in their younger days acquire a liberal education is obvious, and they are not negligent of that advantage. They also mix, at an early period of life, in society, and hence acquire sooner the habit of transacting business with ease and with accuracy. They have likewise the advantage, from being in the vicinity of the town, of reading the works of the most celebrated authors, from the many extensive libraries in circulation; and, in particular, (principally from that circumstance) the writings on agriculture are very generally known; even news-papers are had here on more easy terms than at a greater

diſtance; and when people have a turn for ſuch amuſements, the knowledge they hence derive is conſiderable.

'They do not, however, confine themſelves merely to reading the theories of writers on huſbandry, which are often ſpeculative and viſionary, but very frequently make excurſions in perſon to the neighbouring counties, where there is any probability of ſeeing improvement, or of gaining information. Very few of them but have explored, at various times, one, or all of thoſe various extenſive fields of ſpirited huſbandry, Eaſt Lothian, the Merſe, and Northumberland; Stirlingſhire, the Carſe of Gowrie and Angus; and many of them have travelled to the more diſtant counties in England, in the view of obtaining more accurate intelligence of the various ſyſtems of huſbandry as there practiſed. The valuable county reports, publiſhed by the Board of Agriculture, will greatly tend to promote ſuch uſeful excurſions.' P. 45.

The changes which have lately taken place with reſpect to the labour, dreſs, furniture, purchaſe of food, and other circumſtances of the farmer, do not, we apprehend, proceed ſolely from the cauſes which are mentioned by the ſurveyor; for there are ſeveral others that have great influence.

Many of the inſtruments here deſcribed are valuable, and the remarks on them are generally uſeful. They are, however, for the moſt part, known to other diſtricts.

On the cultivation and uſes of different articles of green and winter food for cattle, the report offers ſome important hints and directions. We do not, however, think the *ruta baga* ſo valuable as it is here repreſented: it is only on particular ſoils that it grows well. We believe with Mr. Robertſon that *kail* may be advantageouſly introduced as an article of field culture, and cattle are certainly fond of it.

The concluding paſſage of the ſection on *feeding* contains ſome facts that demand the attention of the grazier.

'Shifting cattle in rotation, from one incloſure to another, at due intervals through the ſeaſon, is ſuppoſed, alſo, to have a good tendency; as a change of the paſture gives them a greater reliſh for their food, and thus induces a greater quantity of aliment to be conſumed, and of courſe ſhortens the proceſs of fattening; a circumſtance that is always deſirable in grazing. Even the quantity of herbage is from this cauſe increaſed; for fields on which the grazing is from time to time ſuſpended, muſt produce a greater proportion of vegetables, from the well-known quality, inherent in green crops, of drawing nouriſhment from the atmoſphere, but which cannot be imbibed by a bare eaten paſture, from the want of foliage to attract it. Therefore, leaving paſture in this ſtate for two or three weeks to recruit, will have a moſt beneficial effect, producing more food at once by the end of that time, than could poſſibly have ariſen had it been continually eaten down as it ſprung

to. Thus, if an inclosure of twenty-four acres were to maintain twenty-four beasts, subdivide it into three of equal size, and let the cattle be shifted weekly, from one to another regularly, it may, perhaps, maintain twenty-seven as well.' P. 131.

In the farm-yard system of Mid-Lothian, so far as it is described in this report, we see little to admire; it is the common practice of too many districts.

In the chapter on 'Live Stock,' a long account of Indian cattle is given. From the examination of this subject the author is led to conclude that there are two distinct breeds of cattle, one suited for the purposes of the dairy, the other adapted to the uses of the butcher. The circumstances that have led him to this conclusion are fully stated; but they are too long to be inserted here.

This report, which is evidently drawn up with care and attention, displays, we believe, the state of Mid-Lothian husbandry in its just point of view. We are sorry to observe, that it is defective in inclosing, in draining, in the culture of green crops as winter food for animals, and in the breeding and rearing of cattle.

Observations on the Seventh Form of Roman Government; in a Letter to the Reverend Henry Kett, B. D. Author of History the Interpreter of Prophecy. By a Layman. 8vo. 1s. Butterworth. 1800.

THE government pictured in the Revelations under the form of a beast with seven heads, has greatly perplexed commentators. Infidelity has exhibited the whole subject as fit only for derision; and the difficulties attending the complete explanation of it have occasioned many protestants to be disgusted with a book in which is contained the history of the most important events concerning the Christian church. But the folly of infidelity, and the carelessness of protestants, are not the only impediments to our better acquaintance with this sacred volume. Within these few years the attention of the religious world has been directed to another quarter; and, impressed by fears of infidelity, vain fears of an enemy who has little power to hurt it, it has been less upon its guard against the insinuations of the worst enemy that Christianity has had to encounter; and the compassion felt for persons in real distress has cast a veil over the iniquity of the system of which they were the supporters. We have more than once pointed out the error of this conduct, but were unwilling to dwell upon it so strongly as we ought, from the fear of seeming to give the least check to national liberality. Though fashion,

however, is leading many of the clergy of all denominations to indulge in the trite invectives against atheism and infidelity, we are happy to find that others, and amongst them several of the most distinguished members of the church of England, begin to apprehend danger from another quarter, and are guarding their outworks from the encroachments of the beast. To all who are or may be engaged in this important task, the contents of this work are highly interesting. It is small in size, but rich in matter. The writer offers his opinion with diffidence and candour, but maintains it with such strong authorities as prove him to be well acquainted with the history of those ages by which the truth of revelation is to an attentive reader strongly confirmed.

All agree that the seven heads of the beast denote seven forms of government which have prevailed in Rome; but, with regard to these forms, there subsists a great difference of opinion. Eight are enumerated by Mr. Kett—kings, consuls, dictators, decemvirs, military tribunes, emperors, Gothic kings and exarchs of Ravenna, and popes. To the seventh form our author objects; and he states such valid objections, and at the same time introduces such a consistent interpretation of the whole prophecy, that he has not only convinced us of the impropriety of assigning any part to the Gothic kings or the government at Ravenna, but has considerably enlarged our ideas of the real nature of papal usurpation.

Five heads of the beast refer 'to five forms of government under which Rome had exercised dominion, previous to the establishment of the empire:' the sixth, subsisting at the time of the delivery of the prophecy, was the imperial form: the seventh then must refer to a form under which, as under the rest, Rome exercised dominion. But this cannot be said to have been the case under the Gothic kings or the exarchs of Ravenna; for at that time Rome was so far from exercising dominion, that she was a subordinate province; and, if we allow such a latitude to prophecy, no reason can be given why municipal prefects, the dynasties of the Visigoths and the Heruli, and other forms, should not be considered as equally entitled to distinction. Dismissing the Gothic kings and exarchs of Ravenna, we must search for some other form in which Rome actually exercised dominion. This subsisted for a short time, and was followed by an eighth form, the real beast itself.

We shall, perhaps, best explain this subject to our readers by considering the eighth form first; and if we find at any period after the imperial government such decisive marks in Rome in which the beast entire is discernible, we may thence be led to ascertain the nature of the seventh head of the beast in its former state of existence. Now Rome has exercised do-

minion, which may be denominated idolatrous and blaſphemous, in two periods of its exiſtence, pagan and papal. When the pagan form ceaſed, Rome ſeemed to be threatened with utter deſtruction, and the beaſt to have received a fatal wound; and no one could form a conjecture that the ſeven-hilled city would revive, and exerciſe dominion over the kings of the earth. The fact is aſcertained; the prophecy was accompliſhed. The tyranny of the revived beaſt was for a very great length of time more oppreſſive than that which prevailed under its former ſhape; and we cannot entertain a doubt that papal Rome is the eighth king deſignated by the apoſtle.

On the overthrow of the imperial government, the wound took place, which ſeemed to be a deadly wound; but the beaſt revived, and a ſeventh form ſucceeded, under which he had not, as in ſome of the preceding forms, that plenitude of power which diſtinguiſhed the eighth king. Beſides, the form continued but a ſhort time, and was ſucceeded by the beaſt himſelf, as eighth king, or the papal antichriſt. The deadly wound may be ſaid to have been inflicted in the fifth century; and we are not, more than our author, anxious to controvert the opinion that it was inflicted by Odoacer in the year 476. The effect of this wound is painted in glowing colours by Gibbon, vol. viii. chap. xlv. p. 158, 159, 160, to which paſſage we wiſh particularly to refer our readers, becauſe from the ſame author we may, perhaps, date in the moſt ſatisfactory manner the firſt ſymptoms of recovery. He places the æra of Rome's ſecond riſe to power and dominion at the commencement of the ſeventh century; and the vital principle of this extraordinary revolution is referred by this advocate for infidelity, who is unintentionally a ſupporter of the truth as it is in Chriſt, to a ſuperſtitious veneration for inanimate objects. 'A vague tradition (he ſays in chap. xlv. vol. viii. p. 161) was embraced, that two Jewiſh teachers, a tent-maker and a fiſherman (the apoſtles St. Peter and St. Paul) had formerly been executed in the Circus of Nero; and at the end of five hundred years their genuine or fictitious relics were adored as the palladium of Chriſtian Rome. The pilgrims of the Eaſt and Weſt reſorted to the holy threſhold.' At this period Rome was reviving from its deadly wound; and, if it appeared with the exerciſe of dominion under a new form, to that form we may ſafely aſſign the ſeventh head of the Revelations. Hiſtory here comes to our aſſiſtance. Boniface the Third had ſcarcely obtained the title of univerſal biſhop, when he began the exerciſe of dominion with his will and command, *volumus et jubemus*; and the neighbouring nations readily ſubmitted to this new ſpiritual authority.

We have ſeen the riſe of this new power, in which Rome

was to exercife dominion but for a fhort time, and was to be fucceeded by the eighth form, or the beaft itfelf, or papal antichrift. She now exercifed dominion as fhe had previous to the fatal wound; but fhe ftill was under fome reftraint from without; fhe was ftill fubject, in fome degree, to the emperor both in civil and ecclefiaftical affairs. That fubjection, we know, was removed; and fhe ruled with paramount authority. The pope, as univerfal bifhop, was diftinguifhed from the papal antichrift in having yet no temporal dominion; and this makes a confiderable difference in the appearance of the two characters. He was aiming at the enlargement of his fpiritual authority; but it was more than a century before he appeared in the double character of a fpiritual and a temporal prince. In 755 we find him in poffeffion of the exarchate, Pentapolis, and the Roman dukedom, 'invefted with the prerogatives of a temporal prince, the choice of magiftrates, the exercife of juftice, the impofition of taxes, and the wealth of the palace of Ravenna.' From this time we find him exercifing an unheard-of dominion over mankind. His pride and arrogance exceeded all bounds; the kings of the earth bowed down to him; and antichrift was manifeft in the revived beaft thus obtaining a dominion not lefs productive to the city of Rome by every device of fpiritual tyranny over the minds, than that which it had exercifed by force of arms over the bodies of men.

'When therefore we confider the character of the papacy about the middle of the eighth century, the antichriftian vices by which the popes of that remarkable period were diftinguifhed, the hoftility to pure and fpiritual worfhip which they maintained, and the enormous acceffion of power which they received, we fhall not hefitate to allow that the univerfal bifhop then grew into the papal antichrift. And if it were neceffary to affign a precife period for the commencement of the reign of the latter, we fhould not perhaps incur much danger of error in fixing upon the year of our Lord 755, when Pepin, either influenced by the hope of obtaining the promifed remiffion of his fins, or by gratitude for the fervices of his fpiritual coadjutor in dethroning his lawful fovereign, firft placed the univerfal bifhop on the throne of temporal dominion, and thereby crowned his unrighteous projects with fuccefs. But this is not neceffary to the explanation of the prophecy. Poffibly, indeed, it may be objected, that, unlefs the rife of the eighth king be correctly afcertained, no certain æra will be afforded from which we may date the commencement of the 1260 years, during which power was to be given to the beaft to perfecute the church. But it may be obferved, that as the twelfth and thirteenth chapters of the Revelations (in which chapters only the 1260 years are mentioned) contain no allufion to the eighth king, the commencement

of those years is not necessarily confined to the rising of that power: probably the period from which it is to be calculated will not be known with certainty before the whole number of years shall have elapsed.' P. 50.

If this interpretation be right (and, though we may differ in assigning the dates to the origin of the papal antichrist, every mark of probability is in its favour) the seven forms of the beast and the eighth king are sufficiently manifest. We have read of the iniquity of this king in the dark ages: we are witnesses to the decline of his power. But his reign is not yet at an end; his subjects are still numerous; and many sovereign princes acknowledge his authority. He may continue some time longer on the earth: the present generation will scarcely see the end of his existence. Rome papal, like Rome pagan, may have many struggles to encounter before its final destruction; but the papal name can scarcely, upon any calculation, reach beyond two thousand years from the birth of Christ. The pope may be restored to the supreme power in the fatal city, or exercise dominion, as some of his predecessors once did, in a subordinate state; but the certainty of his fall is now apparent to the most shallow-sighted politician, and the eye of faith looks with joy to those happier times which are to follow the destruction of antichrist.

We have employed more time on this work than from the size it might seem to demand; but the importance of the subject will be a sufficient excuse, and, if we can by any means excite our readers to a diligent study of the sacred volumes, and particularly the clergy to that of the book of Revelations, we shall think that our labours have been exerted to the most valuable purpose; and the example set by the author of this work, engaged as he is in the laborious profession of the law, will, we hope, induce others, whether ecclesiastics or laymen (for all are equally interested in religious truth) to apply their faculties with energy to the understanding of prophecy. Thus their fears from the transient affairs of this world will be allayed; and the certainty of the triumph of the church of Christ over all its adversaries, grounded on full conviction, will inspire them in all events with unspeakable joy.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

POLITICS AND PUBLIC AFFAIRS.

A Narrative of what paſſed at Killalla, in the County of Mayo, and the parts adjacent, during the French Invaſion in the Summer of 1798. *By an Eye-Witneſs.* 8vo. 3*s.* 6*d.* *ſewed.* Wright. 1800.

IF any judgement may be formed of the character of a man from his ſtyle of writing and manner of relating important and intereſting events, the author of this narrative, who is, we underſtand, the biſhop of Killala, is a man of ſenſe, candour, and humanity. He gives the reader a diſtinct view of the ſcene and actions in the period on which he dwells, and interſperſes throughout judicious and liberal reflections. It appears, from this account, that the French officers, by whom the invaſion of Ireland was conducted, were men of honour, well verſed in the military art, and actuated by principles of humanity whenever the object of their voyage did not imperiouſly command them to inflict wounds and ſcatter death around them; and the ſoldiers whom they commanded were men of indefatigable exertion, cheerful under fatigue the moſt exhauſting and a regimen the moſt ſlender and abſtemious, ſtrict in diſcipline beyond the common meaſure of military obſervance, free from a luſt of plunder and from a love of licentiouſneſs. In fact, it appears from this account, that nothing but ſmallneſs of number prevented the French army from being very formidable to the government of the ſiſter kingdom.

In full contraſt with theſe diſciplined regular active veterans, our narrator places the catholic volunteers and inſurgents who joined the French ſtandard, who were ignorant in the extreme, ridiculouſly deficient in the knowledge of arms, without leaders, of much animal courage indeed, but deſtitute of wiſdom to plan, and talents to execute, any great undertaking. Theſe men loved pillage, and occaſionally indulged themſelves with it, but were, upon the whole, kept under reſtraint by the French more completely than was expected. The Engliſh troops, it appears, were, in reſpect of plunder, even more reprehenſible than theſe ignorant inſurgents; and it appears too, that they had no averſion from ſanguinary proceedings. The account here given of the plundering movements of the Britiſh army makes us bluſh for our national fame; and, if other reports had not fully coincided with this, it would have required all the character of the preſent writer to ſtamp with credibility accounts ſo abominable and diſgraceful to the Britiſh name.

The narrator wonders that the Iriſh catholics ſhould have been

inclined to join the French infidels, who openly laughed at the ignorance and the creed of their new aſſociates. The narration, however, affords an elucidation of this difficulty; for it appears from this account that they were nearly periſhing with hunger; for when meal was ſet before theſe miſerable countrymen, they devoured it with an eagerneſs which ſhowed them to have been long ſtrangers to ſuch indulgences. Keen hunger appears, more than religion, to have been the cauſe of inſurrection.

Our author accounts for the junction of the catholic clergy to the ſceptical army by the circumſtance of their dependence upon their people, and ſeems more than to hint that government would act wiſely in making ſome proviſion for the miniſters of the ancient religion of Ireland.

Upon the whole, this is a valuable narrative. It ſhows the horrors of civil war, and may, perhaps, throw ſome light upon the *cauſes* of civil diſcontent. We feel ourſelves obliged to the author for his production, and intereſted in the proſperity of a man who ſeems to reſemble the Samaritan of the Goſpel rather than the prieſt or the Levite.

Refutation of Dr. Duigenan's Appendix; or, an Attempt to aſcertain the Extent, Population, and Wealth, of Ireland, and the relative Numbers, as well as Property, of its Proteſtant and Roman-Catholic Inhabitants. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale. 1800.

This author attempts to ſhow that Dr. Duigenan has ſtated very erroneouſly the *population*, the *comparative extent*, and the relative *numbers* and *property* of the *proteſtant* and *catholic* ſubjects in Ireland. But he has not convinced us of Dr. Duigenan's error, as to the *population* of Ireland, concerning which that writer appears to us to poſſeſs ſufficient documents. On the other ſubjects which he treats, he is more ſucceſsful, and eſpecially in adjuſting the numbers and property of the Iriſh proteſtants and catholics. The pamphlet is written in a tolerable ſtyle, and in very good temper.

Conſiderations concerning Peace. By a Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard. 1800.

This ſmall pamphlet comes from one who belongs to a very numerous claſs of men in this country, equally averſe from jacobiniſm and from a continuance of the war. He maintains, by incontrovertible arguments, the competency of France, at preſent, to ſupport the relations of peace and amity, and ſhows that even her democratic rulers, if peace ſhould not deſtroy them, muſt, by their popular exiſtence, be obliged to conſult the French people before they again make war, and conſequently muſt preſerve peace—the decided intereſt of all the French. The pamphlet is found in argument, correct in ſtatement of facts, generally neat in ſtyle, and ſufficiently courteous and flattering to Mr. Pitt, whom the author conſiders as a *great and good man*.

Reflections on the Perfectibility of Man; the Sovereignty of the People; Indefinite Liberty; Perfect Equality; and on the Principles of Mr. Necker. Tranſlated from the German of M. Zimmerman. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Hamilton. 1799.

The reputation of the late Dr. Zimmermann in the *Belles Lettres* was not equaled by his celebrity as a politician. Readers who have traced the abſurd dogmas, the multiplied crimes, and the practical miſeries of the French revolution, in the eloquent and philoſophical delineations of a Burke, will receive little gratification from theſe reflections. The author ſpeaks contemptuouſly of M. Necker, with frequent alluſions to his former purſuits as banker, and inferences of a capacity too narrow and mechanical for the adminiſtration of a great kingdom. Independently of the ſpleen with which theſe remarks are made, Zimmermann in ſome meaſure ſupplies a refutation of their truth by quoting, from the writings of Necker, many paſſages, which, in depth of political knowledge, moderation of principle, and acquaintance with mankind, are not ſurpaſſed by any writer on this ſtupendous, inexhauſtible topic.

Review of a Publication, entitled, the Speech of the Right Honourable John Foſter, Speaker of the Houſe of Commons of Ireland. In a Letter addreſſed to him by William Smith, Eſq. M.P. 8vo. 2s. Wright. 1799.

The chief arguments of the ſpeaker of the Iriſh houſe of commons are examined with great candour; but, in the progreſs which is now made towards the union of the two kingdoms, a great part of the diſcuſſion will excite little intereſt. The competence of parliament, and the final ſettlement of 1782, have had their day. The propriety of the union is in general allowed: particular arrangements become the moſt important queſtions. After thirty-eight pages the author comes to the intrinſic merits of the meaſure. One is evidently to remove the inconveniences that might ariſe (and which have already been experienced) from two independent legiſlatures; in which point the ſpeaker's objections are ably refuted. The notion of merging the Iriſh in the Britiſh parliament is ſhown to be without foundation; for both are merged in the imperial parliament; and, if the Britiſh parliament ſhould reform the repreſentation in its houſe of commons as judiciouſly as the Iriſh have propoſed that it ſhould be done with their houſe, the friends of both countries muſt rejoice in the apparent proſpects of ſucceſs to the future legiſlature. Britiſh wealth will not, according to the ſpeaker, be diffuſed by the union over Ireland. His antagoniſt replies, that tranquillity will be the conſequence of the meaſure, and that, by tranquillity, the wealth of Britain will flow through Ireland as through its own counties. Other obſervations, in which we concur, are made by this writer; and if, as he thinks, the meaſure ſhould lead to catholic emancipation, and a conſtitutional parliamentary

reform, the little clamour now excited in Ireland will ſubſide, and the moſt violent oppoſers of the union will be the firſt to acknowledge its advantages.

RELIGION.

Modern Infidelity conſidered with Reſpect to its Influence on Society: in a Sermon, preached at the Baptiſt Meeting, Cambridge. By Robert Hall, A.M. 8vo. 2s. Button. 1800.

The alarms reſpecting infidelity have invaded the meeting-houſe; and, to preſerve the flock from the inſidious ſnares of ſcepticiſm and atheiſm, the preacher indulged his auditors with a long treatiſe, which, from the number of pages in print, muſt, we preſume, have taken up about an hour and a half in the delivery. It muſt have been very entertaining to the frequenters of the meeting-houſe to hear the changes rung on 'infidelity, ſcepticiſm, atheiſm, modern infidelity, faſhionable ſcepticiſm, modern ſcepticiſm, faſhionable infidelity, modern philoſophers, French revolution, atheiſtical ſect, ſceptical impiety, ſceptical principles, ſceptical ſyſtem, revolutionary principles, atheiſtical philoſophy, atheiſtical ſchool, ſavage philoſophy;' and then to learn the names of the great 'champions of infidelity,' from lord Herbert, 'the firſt and pureſt of our Engliſh free-thinkers, who flouriſhed in the beginning of the reign of Charles the firſt, to Bolingbroke and Hume.' The names of 'Epicurus, Voltaire, d'Alembert, Diderot, Rouſſeau, Minerva, Jupiter, Gibbon,' contribute to excite curioſity; and 'Bacon, Newton, Locke,' add to the dignity of the period. On this topic the preacher aſſerts, that 'a great majority on the continent, and a conſiderable proportion in England, of thoſe who purſue literature as a profeſſion, may be juſtly conſidered as the open or diſguiſed abettors of atheiſm.' This aſſertion, as far as it relates to the writers in England, we have no ſcruple in contradicting. It is an idle figment of the imagination. The writer has never given himſelf the trouble of conſulting the periodical publications, from which he may eaſily collect the names of the living authors in Great-Britain, ſo as to compare the number of perſons who abet atheiſm with that of thoſe who are its open and decided foes. From a much greater intercourſe with the literati, we declare the aſſertion to be unfounded; and we ſee no reaſon for raiſing the ſpirits of atheiſts, whoſe number or talents cannot confer any diſtinction upon them, either in literature or in the ſtate. This aſſertion of the writer is a ſufficient clue to the whole of this long treatiſe. He is inflamed with the preſent mania; and the French revolution has taken from him the powers of diſcrimination. Atheiſm, ſcepticiſm, and infidelity, are terms which he uſes one for the other; and being at no pains to diſtinguiſh between them, he has preſented to the public a ſtrange farrago, though he ſhows powers capable, under proper correction,

of raising him to some degree of eminence among those 'who pursue literature as a profession.'

A Letter to Mrs. Hannah More, on some part of her late Publication, entitled "Strictures on Female Education." To which is subjoined a Discourse on Genesis xv. 6. *Preached at Christ's Church in Bath. By the Rev. Charles Daubeny, LL. B.* 8vo. 2s. Hatchard. 1799.

The supposed difficulty of reconciling St. Paul and St. James on the respective merits of faith and works, has occasioned many controversies in the different ages of the Christian church; and, from inattention to their own expressions, rather than from an important difference of opinion, very respectable writers have seemed at variance with each other, and have entangled their readers in the mazes of theological disputation. In the case before us, Hannah More, whose good intentions cannot be doubted, has unfortunately made use of expressions which this writer, after many compliments to the lady, justly terms inconsistent 'with the language either of the scripture or of the church of England.' The basis of the controversy is the unfounded opinion of that authoress, Mr. Wilberforce, and others, 'that there is an indivisible union between the doctrines and duties of Christianity, or that the latter grow out of the former, as the natural and necessary productions of such a living root;' or, in other words, 'that faith, considered as the cause of evangelical righteousness, must necessarily be productive of the fruits of it as its correspondent effect.' Against these positions the following substantial reasons are given by Mr. Daubeny.

'The position, that faith must necessarily produce good works, leaves no middle character between the downright infidel and the perfect Christian: consequently, all the reasoning, either of St. Paul, St. James, or yourself, that is addressed to formal professors, remains without the possibility of application. On the other hand, this position, exclusive of its directly militating against fact and experience, leads moreover to a very possible and very dangerous conclusion; that of lulling the formal professor of Christianity into a fatal security on a subject of the first importance; by teaching him to take that for granted which remains to be proved; and indolently to expect a consequence, which, according to the œconomy of divine grace, he is himself to become the instrument of promoting.' P. 45.

The very metaphor of tree, root, and fruit, would, it might be thought, have suggested to the lady more clear ideas on these subjects. The root of the tree may be sound and good; yet there may be a fatal disease in the upper parts which will render it barren and unproductive. To favour her doctrine, the authoress seems to have embraced too strenuously an old opinion of a cardinal on the respective merits of the former and latter parts of the Epistles of St. Paul; an opinion which Mr. Daubeny ably controverts, particularly showing that the supposed distinction between moral and doc-

trinal parts in the firſt twelve chapters of the Epiſtle to the Romans is unfounded.

As an appendix to the letter is a ſermon on the faith of Abraham, in which the nature of juſtification by faith is treated with great perſpicuity. The following extract will, we hope, encourage many (who are in danger of being led away by ſome popular enthuſiaſts) to peruſe the whole of this judicious and truly evangelical diſcourſe.

'In one ſenſe, indeed, it muſt be ſaid, that by works no man can be juſtified; whether reference be made to the ceremonial works under the law, or to the works of evangelical obedience under the goſpel; becauſe, it is only in, and through Chriſt, that juſtification is to be obtained. The works of man, as a fallen creature, muſt, under every diſpenſation, be defective; and conſequently not entitled, on their own account, to any reward. In this view of the ſubject, a man is not juſtified, properly ſpeaking, either by his faith or his works; becauſe neither faith nor works conſtitute the meritorious cauſe of his juſtification. All, therefore, that is meant, when it is ſaid, that a man is juſtified by faith or by works, is this; that thoſe works of Chriſtian piety and moral virtue, which are the offſpring of faith in the divine promiſes under the new covenant, and the conſequences of that communion between the believer's ſoul and the divine ſpirit, on which the whole of our ſpiritual life depends, are, by virtue of the principle from which they proceed, rendered pleaſing and acceptable unto God; and will be conſidered as furniſhing their performers with a title of grace to that ſalvation, which has been purchaſed for them by the merits of a crucified Redeemer.' P. 82.

In addition to our general acquieſcence in the ſentiments brought forward by Mr. Daubeny, we cannot refrain from expreſſing our approbation of the manner in which theſe ſentiments are conveyed; and we ſincerely hope that a candid peruſal of this little tract may be the means of reſtoring to evangelical ſobriety thoſe who, under the terms of 'vital Chriſtianity' and 'looking to Jeſus,' are wandering in the paths of myſticiſm.

A Sermon preached in the Pariſh Church of Northleach, Glo[ce]ſterſhire, at the Viſitation of the Worſhipful and Reverend James Webſter, LL. B. Archdeacon of Gloſter; and publiſhed at his Requeſt, and that of ſeveral of the Clergy preſent. By the Rev. J. Hare, A. M. &c. 4to. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1799.

In this diſcourſe (the text of which is taken from Iſaiah, chap. lii. ver. 7.) the preacher endeavours to prove,

'1ſt. That an eſtabliſhed prieſthood is ſo agreeable to the nature and reaſon of man, that there is no inſtance of any civiliſed nation in which there has not been ſuch an eſtabliſhment.

'2dly. That it is exprefsly declared in Scripture, there fhall be an eftablifhed and permanent priefthood.

'3dly. That in this nation the eftablifhment of the priefthood is not burthenfome to the community, but the reverfe. And

'4thly. That fuch an eftablifhment has a natural tendency to increafe the temporal as well as fpiritual welfare of the people.' P. 3.

On the firft head, Mr. Hare ftates, that 'in all climes and ages mankind have agreed in one effential point, the exiftence of a Supreme Being, of an adoration due to him, and of fome external obfervances neceffary to evidence fuch a belief, and fuch an adoration.'—This point he elucidates from the fentiments and conduct of the Egyptians, Perfians, Greeks, and Romans. Proceeding to the fecond head, he ftates from facred hiftory the divine appointment of an order of priefthood. Here he reforts to the Old Teftament and to the Jewifh difpenfation; and he afterwards treats of the Chriftian priefthood; and concludes that he has 'proved from Scripture that there fhould be an eftablifhed priefthood.'

Our author feems to manifeft a ftudied defign to extol not only the fpiritual functions, but alfo the temporal honours, emoluments, and dignity of the priefthood in general. Thus he tells us that, in fome countries, 'the priefthood poffeffed the higheft authority, both with the prince and people;' that, in others, 'the kings were all priefts;' that, in another, 'before the king could afcend the throne, he was obliged for a certain time to receive inftruction from fome of the magi, and to learn of them both the art of reigning, and that of worfhipping the gods in a proper manner; nor did he determine any important affair when upon the throne, without firft confulting them.' He proceeds to tell us, that 'in fome parts of Greece, the dignity of the priefts was equal to that of the kings;' and that 'it was the opinion of the people that the gods were more ready to hear the prayers of the priefts than thofe of other men;' alfo that 'it was the cuftom of all nations to pay a peculiar honour to their priefts,' &c. When fpeaking of the Chriftian priefthood, and the advantages derived by the community from that order of men, he fpecifies the beneficial effect to the yeomanry and peafantry 'from the external and fuperior manners of the clergyman and his family;' and remarks, that, 'were it not from *the care they have of him*, and from their affembling with him in a decent drefs on the fabbath, what we now term boorifh rufticity, would among them in time become favage ferocity,' &c. We have read and heard much of the power and dignity of the priefthood in former times; and, to other illuftrations, the preacher might have added the domineering claims of power and authority fet up by popes, cardinals, bifhops, and abbots of the church of Rome; but for a *proteftant* divine to talk in this high-flown ftyle, and in the prefent day, difcovers a want of humility and difcretion. To him,

and others of the ſame ſtamp, we would recommend the ſalutary maxim of our Lord: 'He that humbleth himſelf ſhall be exalted, but he that exalteth himſelf ſhall be abaſed.'

Mr. Hare ſucceeds better in proving from his third head, 'that, in this nation, the eſtabliſhment of the prieſthood is not burthenſome to the community, but the reverſe.'

In illuſtrating, from the fourth head, that ſuch an eſtabliſhment has a natural tendency to increaſe the temporal as well as ſpiritual welfare of the people, he touches on the excellent education which the clergy of England uſually receive; adverts to the office of juſtice of the peace, which many of them ſo ably fill; ſpeaks of their being the intelligent and learned preceptors of youth, of their acting as arbitrators of litigious diſputes, furniſhing wine and nouriſhment to the ſick and poor, affording ſhelter to the wandering traveller, &c.

From this analyſis, our readers may perceive the tendency of this diſcourſe, and will perhaps judge that ſomething more might have been ſaid of the *ſpiritual* benefits derived from the miniſterial function, and that the preacher would have loſt nothing for himſelf and his brethren, had he treated in a more ſparing manner of the *temporal* advantages derived from this body of men, and the dignity, power, and authority, aſſumed by the prieſthood.

Minutiæ; or Little Things for the Poor of Chriſt's Flock. By J. W. Peers, LL. D. 12mo. 3s. Boards. Button. 1799.

We were not much prepoſſeſſed in favour of this volume, from the quaint title prefixed, ſo much in the puritanical ſtrain of the laſt century. We could not, however, object to the remark thrown out in the addreſs to the reader, which ſerves to illuſtrate the author's motive for ſelecting ſuch a motto.

'Every ſtar emits light;—the leaſt are not uſeleſs, though imperceptible by the human eye. Little things are neceſſary and beneficial, or God would not have made them. The ſmalleſt veins, through which the blood circulates, conduce to the welfare of the whole body. The widow's mite was accepted.'

In this little volume are ſhort meditations, founded upon various texts of ſcripture. The writer's ſentiments are Calviniſtical; every text is made to bend to this ſyſtem: much ſelf-abaſement is expreſſed throughout; and we doubt not that by ſuch as reliſh the warm effuſions of methodiſm, there will be found much of that *unction* which will gratify and pleaſe. Dr. Peers diſcovers a vein of undiſſembled piety: we could have wiſhed to ſee it more connected in this publication with ſolid judgement.

Conſiderations on the Book of Geneſis, in a Series of Letters, humbly addreſſed to the Right Reverend Father in God, Richard Lord Biſhop of Landaff. 8vo. No Publiſher's Name.

The difficulties attending the chronology of the book of Geneſis

are well known to every biblical ftudent. They arife partly from the nature of that book, which is evidently a compilation from different writers, and partly from the errors which have crept into the text, and have rendered its feveral dates uncertain. In the confideration of thefe difficulties, the author of the prefent work was led into very erroneous conclufions; and he infers, from the miftakes which he believes to exift in fome of the dates, that the book of Genefis is not the word of God, and is not worthy of belief. That it is not the word of God may indeed be affirmed; nor does it pretend to be the word of God. It is a hiftory of facts; and in that hiftory is frequently recorded the word of God. Hence, if we fhould allow that there is a contradiction in feveral of the dates, it would not, in our opinion, deftroy the credibility of the creation of the world, the fall of man, the deluge, the call of Abraham—facts in which we are all moft materially interefted. The point on which our author chiefly dwells is the age of Jacob at his death, which, in oppofition to the text, he fixes at 159 years; but, to do this, he fuppofes that Jofeph was only feventeen years old when he was carried into Egypt. It is certain that he was only feventeen years old when he excited the firft jealoufy among his brethren; but feveral years might elapfe before that jealoufy was inflamed into rancorous hatred. The eleven fons of Jacob, it is faid, were born within twelve years in the houfe of Laban; but this is not mentioned in the book of Genefis; and we cannot allow fuch a fuppofition without fome ftrong grounds for its fupport. It is by no means clear alfo that Jofeph was not carried into Egypt before the death of Ifaac. The reflexions on the phrafes applied to Benjamin, as being a lad, died of old age, &c. do not appear to us to carry any great weight with them. Benjamin was much younger than Jofeph, who fpeaks of him as the lad that he knew; and one who was 120 years old may be fuppofed to have fpoken of a fon about twenty in a different manner from parents in thefe days, when the difference between the ages of father and fon is often not twenty years. We cannot then fee much force in thefe objections, efpecially as the writer is a firm believer in the general facts: but they are fufficient to excite the attention of criticifm; and the learned prelate to whom they are addreffed is fo well qualified to remove the writer's doubts, that it would give great pleafure to biblical ftudents to learn that thefe letters had induced him to enter into a full inveftigation of the chronology of the Old Teftament.

A Sermon on the Duties of the Young. By Hugh Blair, D.D. F.R.S. &c. 8vo. 1s. Cadell *and* Davies. 1800.

This fermon, with the confent of the author, is publifhed feparately for the ufe of fchools; but however highly we may prize it, we cannot approve the high price at which it is offered to the public. A fhilling for thirty-nine pages, in very fmall octavo, feems to be an exorbitant fum, if the work is intended for general utility.

Tax upon Income. The Payment of Tribute, a Duty of ſtrict moral Obligation. A Diſcourſe, delivered in the Pariſh Church of Sheffield (purſuant to the Will of the late Dr. Waterhouſe), on the 30th of January, 1799, being the Anniverſary of the Martyrdom of King Charles I. To which are annexed, ſome ſhort Obſervations on the Word ' Loyalty,' in Anſwer to Mr. Urban's Reviewer. By George Smith, A. M. &c. 8vo. 6d. Matthews.

If we miſtake not, this is a ſermon from the ſame divine who lately preached one before the ſociety of *Odd Fellows* of Sheffield. If that was a ſermon preached to an *odd* congregation, this which is now before us is certainly introduced to view with an *odd* title. We, however, agree with the preacher in the propoſition laid down, that ' the payment of tribute is a duty of ſtrict moral obligation.' But we think that he paid no great compliment to his hearers when he endeavoured to prove a propoſition nearly as ſelf-evident as this, that a ſtate of ſociety is preferable to a ſtate of nature. However, we muſt candidly ſuppoſe that his aim was not ſo much to convince his auditors of a truth which any of them might have called in queſtion, as to enforce a practical regard to a maxim which the judgement fully approved. We muſt allow that in this diſcourſe there are many ingenious and forcible remarks. We leave the vindication of the ſenſe in which Mr. Smith uſed the word *loyalty* in a former diſcourſe, in oppoſition to the animadverſions of brother critics, to thoſe whom it more immediately concerns.

Pious Reflections for every Day in the Month. Tranſlated from the French of Fenelon, Archbiſhop of Cambray. A new Edition. To which is now added, a Sketch of the Life of the Author. Small 8vo. 1s. Symonds. 1799.

This excellent little manual is too well known to the public to require on our part any additional recommendation; and the memoirs of the amiable Fenelon, prefixed to this edition, form a conſiderable improvement.

Glad Tidings to periſhing Sinners: or, the genuine Goſpel a complete Warrant for the Ungodly to believe in Jeſus. By Abraham Booth. Second Edition, improved. 12mo. 3s. Boards. Button. 1800.

The title page is a ſufficient index to the contents of the work, which is in ſome degree enlarged from the former edition.

LAW.

A Digeſt of the Law of Actions and Trials at Niſi Prius. By Iſaac 'Eſpinaſſe, of Gray's Inn, Eſq. Barriſter at Law. The third Edition, corrected, with conſiderable Additions from printed and manuſcript Caſes. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Butterworth.

In the advertiſement to the preſent edition of Mr. 'Eſpinaſſe's Digeſt, it is obſerved, that

' The following work can only derive its value from accuracy in collecting, and from induſtry in compiling the whole of the caſes

which comprise the law of Nisi Prius. This in the present edition the author has endeavoured to attain. The decisions are brought down to the present period, and embodied into the work, where they apply. The errors in the former editions are corrected, where the author's observation, or the communication of others, pointed them out.' Vol. i. p. 3.

Accuracy is undoubtedly of the very first consequence in a publication of this sort; and, in the two former editions of the present work, there was much room for correction. The third edition has been published with more care; a circumstance which, with the very lucid *arrangement* of the Digest, will render it an useful publication. The preface to the second edition, which also accompanies the present, would have admitted much improvement of style; its commencement, in particular, contains a strange *cacophony* of termination.

'When the *profession* have long been in *possession* of a work of established *reputation*, sanctioned with the name of an author high in *situation*, and still more eminent for talents and great legal *information*, some account may perhaps be deemed necessary of the motives which have induced me to obtrude on their *attention* the following *publication*. In detailing these motives, it is impossible to avoid *observation* on what appear to me to be the defects of that work. Nothing but an attempt to correct these defects, and to submit to the world another *publication*, aiming at least at improvement, can justify this claim to public *attention*.' Vol. i. p. v.

A Treatise on Copyholds. By Charles Watkins, Esq. of the Middle Temple, Author of an Essay on the Law of Descents, &c. Vol. II. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards.* Butterworth. 1799.

The *black-lettered* industry of Mr. Watkins we have had several occasions to notice, and the first volume of his Treatise on Copyholds received our commendation for extent of research and accuracy of reference. He observes that,

'He has pursued the same method in the present, as he pursued in the former volume. He has been brief; and, where the subject permitted him, he has endeavoured to extract consistency. This he found, however, was not always even to be hoped for. He found reporter against reporter, and case against case. He found consequences continue when their causes had ceased. He found conclusions, which justly followed from premises which once existed, applied to instances in which those premises could not exist. He found arbitrary assertion adopted by servility, cherished by prejudice, and at length matured into doctrines whose law could not be questioned, but whose absurdity was too apparent to be denied. It must not, therefore, be wondered at, if, when so situated, he has, in some instances, left the law in all its glorious uncertainty; and to such uncertainty must it always be subject, while we consider common sense as subservient to precedent, and suffer the blunders of one age to be the *criteria* of right in another.

* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XXII. p. 459.

'Much still remains for investigation. Our laws of property are so connected with each other, that some relation to the doctrine of copyholds may be traced in most of them. What, however, may be deemed necessary to a system of copyhold law, which is not treated of in these volumes, the author must leave to those who have better health, and are better calculated for the undertaking, than himself.

'Much, too, may be expected which did not belong to him to perform. It has even been intimated to him, that the law relative to courts-leet was expected: but he must beg leave to say once more that he was writing on the law of copyholds; and surely the law of courts-leet formed no part of that law. He might as well have given a dissertation upon thunder, or upon the seat of the soul. He has sometimes, indeed, incidentally noticed the laws relative to freehold, when treating of those relative to copyhold, property; but it was only by way of illustration, or because they could not be separated.' P. vi.

Some readers will smile at the quaintness and pomposity discoverable in the foregoing remarks; but we must allow the author the praise of having well performed the professional part of his undertaking.

Arrangement, under distinct Titles, of all the Provisions of the several Acts of Parliament relating to the Assessed Taxes. By Stewart Kyd, Esq. Barrister at Law. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Butterworth. 1799.

That the arrangement of such a subject should necessarily occupy an octavo volume, will be lamented by many persons; but its utility will be obvious to every reader of the advertisement.

'The present work contains the substance of the following acts of parliament:—the land-tax for 1798, which is now, as to the assessment of real property, rendered perpetual, subject to redemption;—the act continuing the assessment on personal property, offices, and pensions, for the year 1799, which will probably be renewed from year to year;—the land-tax redemption act, with the five acts for altering and amending it;—the two acts of G. II. by which a duty of five per cent. was imposed on offices and pensions;—all the acts, in number nine, relating to the duties on windows or lights, and on inhabited houses;—all the acts, in number seventeen, relating to the duties on male servants, carriages, horses, mules, and dogs;—and the four acts relating to the tax on income; in all, forty acts of parliament.

'All the provisions, now in force, of all the acts relating to each distinct subject, are arranged under distinct titles, according to their natural connection with each other, that the reader may see at one view every thing which relates to any particular title. With respect to the substance of the acts, the object of the author has been, not abridgement, but arrangement; he is not aware that any one provision now in force has been omitted. The language of the acts is

in general abridged; but, in ſome inſtances, for the ſake of clearneſs and preciſion, ſeveral proviſions, which in the acts are crowded together, and involved with each other in one clauſe, are ſeparated, and given in diſtinct paragraphs.'

Mr. Kyd has performed this taſk of arrangement with accuracy and perſpicuity.

The Lord Thanet's Caſe conſidered, as to the Queſtion, Whether the Judgment be ſpecific or arbitrary? Together with the fulleſt Reports of the Caſes on the Subject. By William Firth, of Lincoln's Inn, Eſq. Barriſter at Law. 8vo. 1s. Butterworth. 1799.

The ſeverity and the ſingularity of the puniſhment for the offence of 'ſtriking in the king's ſuperior courts of juſtice,' and the doubts expreſſed by the judges of the court of king's bench, as to their power of awarding any other than a *ſpecific* judgement in the caſe of the earl of Thanet, render a diſcuſſion of the ſubject peculiarly intereſting. The pamphlet ſtates correctly the information againſt the earl; and ſeveral caſes from the year-books, and other authorities, are cited in ſupport of the opinion that the puniſhment in the preſent caſe ſhould be arbitrary. The following is a ſpecimen of the arguments adduced by the author.

'I am to contend, in the firſt place, that the individual word "ſtrike" is indiſpenſable to create the offence of "ſtriking in the king's courts," &c.

'I preſume then that it is a rule of law to have the preciſe fact ſtated with a technical certainty, which admits of no argument, becauſe it demonſtrates itſelf. If I wanted an authority to ſupport the poſition, that the word "ſtrike" is indiſpenſable to conſtitute the offence of "ſtriking" *eo nomine*, I ſhould mention Long's Caſe, 5 Co. 122, where the word "*percuſſit*" is neceſſary even in an indictment of murder occaſioned by the diſcharge of fire-arms, and the word "*exoneravit*" inſufficient without that word; ſurely *à fortiori* the word "*percuſſit*" is indiſpenſable in this caſe, where "ſtriking" is not only the name and title, but the very eſſence and giſt of the offence. But Bellingham's Caſe (ante, p. 21) may be cited *è contra*; yet, admitting that to be law, *non conſtat* but that the indictment had the eſſential word "*percuſſit*" inſerted, then the reſt is only a matter of evidence and opinion.[1] The judges certainly have the power of ruling whether *kicking, elbowing, juſtling, or giving a blow with the knees*, comes under the comprehenſion of the word "*percuſſit*," but it by no means proves that they can diſpenſe with the word "*percuſſit*," which is a word of art, and muſt be uſed, for the judges have no power to uſe a new word of art in an indictment which is deſcriptive appropriately of the offence, to diſcard the old one. And indeed in theſe days, though not to be boaſted of by any means for formal and technical accuracy in the drawing of ſpecial indictments, one of murder by ſhooting with a muſket or piſtol, &c. would have the word "ſtrike" inſerted, according to the precedent in Cro. Cir. Aſſ. 457. There can be no

doubt of the neceſſity of this word "ſtrike." It would certainly be neceſſary, if the death-blow was given by a weapon held in the hand of the offender. It would certainly be as neceſſary if the weapon were thrown or caſt from the hand of the offender. Admitting that, I ſhould wiſh to know the difference (as to the technical deſcription of the means uſed to produce the end) between throwing a hammer, ſhooting an arrow, and firing a muſket. In the caſe likewiſe of Francis Oiley [a *felo de ſe*], Cro. Jac. 635, who ſhot himſelf with a croſs-bow arrow; on certiorari the verdict was reverſed, and one of the reaſons was, for the omiſſion of the words "that he ſtruck himſelf."

'It cannot be pretended that an indictment of murder is good without the word "*murdravit*;" of burglary, without the word "*burglariter*;" of rape at common law, without the word "*rapuit*;" of mayhem, without the word "*mayhemiavit*;" of ſtriking in a church, on the ſtatute Edw. VI. &c. without the word "ſtrike," &c. too tedious to enumerate. Then why is it that the highly penal offence of "ſtriking in the king's ſuperior courts of juſtice," can be ſubſtantiated without the individual word "ſtrike" in the indictment or information? I will not labour at ſo clear a point, nor weaken the force of its incontrovertibility (as is uſual in law arguments at the bar) by bringing in a motley crowd of nominal auxiliaries, which are no ſooner fairly placed in the field than they deſert over to the other ſide.' p. 49.

The analogy of the technical and operative words in indictments for various criminal offences, is corroborative of Mr. Firth's concluſions on this ſubject, in the conſideration of which he has diſcovered a very reſpectable portion of profeſſional induſtry and ability.

Obſervations on the Office of Conſtable, with a View to its Improvement; in a Letter to Patrick Colquhoun, Eſq. 8vo. 1s. Sael. 1799.

The conſtitutional importance of the duties of a conſtable, and the propriety of adapting the vigorous performance of them to the improvement of our modern police, are elucidated and enforced with much civil knowledge and ſtrength of reaſoning by the author of this pamphlet; which alſo, in point of compoſition, deſerves the praiſe of being clear and animated.

MEDICINE, &c.

Further Obſervations on the Variolæ Vaccinæ, or Cow-Pox. By Edward Jenner, M.D. F.R.S. F.L.S. &c. 4to. 2s. 6d. Law. 1799.

As in the courſe of the conteſt relating to the cow-pox, and its efficacy in ſecuring the conſtitution from ſmall-pox, ſome caſes have been publiſhed, in which the patients have experienced both diſeaſes, it was neceſſary to obviate an objection ſo formidable. We ſhall give the anſwer more conciſely than we find it in the work before us, and in a manner ſufficiently comprehenſive.

Dr. Jenner supposes that every eruption, even if communicated from cows, is not the true vaccine pox. These animals may have ulcers of a different kind on the nipples, or the disease may have degenerated into common ulcers, no longer specifically infectious, but still capable, as putrid matter, of producing some eruptions on hands which have touched it. This we may admit, but we must then ask for some more specific distinctions of the vaccine eruption, and the fever that attends it; for, in consequence of this evasion, no fact can be brought to bear against the doctrine, should such be found.

'Quo teneam vultus mutantem Protea nodo?'

As collateral assistances to this explanation, cases of the small-pox occurring twice, and some in which matter, taken from pustules in a very advanced state, failed of producing the infection, are brought forward. The facts of the former kind are curious; but they are so few, that persons trust to inoculation as a sufficient, if not a perfect security. The latter are valuable, and are related by a practitioner of candour and judgement; but he will allow us to question the universality of this cause of failure. We admit that the limpid matter is chiefly infectious, and that in the later stages some mixture of limpid matter may be the part which produces the disease; but it is certain, that small-pox matter is generally infectious to the last moment of its fluid state.

Two other points connected with this subject are noticed. That this is not a disease so mild as was at first represented, is well known; and that the pustules, particularly on the arm, greatly resemble the small-pox, has been frequently observed. To obviate the former, Dr. Jenner remarks that the dangerous symptoms are chiefly secondary from the excess of inflammation in the inoculated part, which may be easily moderated: but that such inflammations do occur, is not a pleasing circumstance. The resemblance of the pustule to the small-pox is occasionally striking; and it must excite some speculations; but in these we must not indulge. It is sufficient to add that Dr. Jenner has been laudably engaged in what he deems a good cause; and, whatever may be the result of the inquiry, the public gratitude is due to him.

Medical Admonitions addressed to Families, respecting the Practice of Domestic Medicine, and the Preservation of Health. With Directions for the Treatment of the Sick, on the first Appearance of Disease; by which its Progress may be stopped, and a fatal Termination prevented from taking Place, through Neglect or improper interference. By James Parkinson. 2 Vols. 8vo. 9s. Boards. Dilly. 1799.

The dangerous consequences which have followed every plan of domestic medicine have often alarmed practitioners, who were, however, aware, that their interference would be considered as an interested attempt to shut the gates of health, except to those who should apply to them for admission. They have, therefore, usually contented themselves with slight remonstrances against too implicit

confidence in theſe guides, and lamented, in ſecret, the dangerous and often fatal events which have reſulted from it. The queſtion, however, will recur—is medicine a ſcience ſo intricate and abſtruſe that none except the initiated ſhould be permitted to explore even its moſt beaten paths? May not the man who is unable to cure a fever preſcribe for a common cold? We anſwer, that it is improper for ſuch to interfere; for the apparent cold may be a fever in diſguiſe, and it will require ſome ſkill to aſcertain whether it is a cold or not. To theſe points then ſhould every domeſtic ſyſtem be directed—the diſtinction of diſeaſes, and the neceſſary cautions to be obſerved at the commencement of each. We have often thought that this might be effectually done by tables of ſymptoms reſembling the delineation of a plant in botanical ſyſtems. In another way—head-ach may, for inſtance, be the title, and the ſubordinate diſtinctions, with quick pulſe and fever, ſickneſs of the ſtomach, &c. may be ſet down as leading to a diſcrimination of its cauſe and connections. This plan would bear ſome reſemblance to Juncker's tables.

Our author's object is not exactly the ſame, nor yet very different. He deſcribes diſeaſes, that they may be diſtinguiſhed; points out the few directions, which the uninſtructed practitioner may follow in the commencement; and gives early warning of danger, and the neceſſity of applying to the more ſkilful attendant. He purpoſes alſo to inſtruct the nurſes and other aſſiſtants, that they may not too officiouſly and improperly interfere, nor, from an ill-timed tenderneſs, neglect the orders of the phyſician.

In general, the author has well performed his taſk; and we can ſafely recommend his work to parents and maſters, particularly to thoſe clergymen whoſe pariſhioners are at ſome diſtance from medical aſſiſtance. The deſcriptions are clear and appropriate; the directions ſimple and judicious. They profeſs not to teach the art of curing diſeaſes, but to point out the nature and tendency of different ſymptoms; to give general directions for the early management of each, before farther aid can be procured, as well as general advice for the conduct of nurſes and attendants through the whole courſe of the different diſorders.

Remarks on ſome of the Opinions of the late Mr. John Hunter reſpecting the Venereal Diſeaſe; in a Letter to Joſeph Adams, M. D. By Henry Clutterbuck, Surgeon. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Booſey. 1799.

We have peruſed theſe liberal and judicious remarks with great pleaſure. The firſt relates to Mr. Hunter's language, where he ſpeaks of 'the diſpoſition to venereal action.' Mr. Clutterbuck conſiders 'diſpoſition' as the commencement of venereal action, not fully evolved, ſo as to produce ſenſible or obvious changes. The reaſon that this commencement is not always affected by a mercurial courſe is, he thinks, becauſe the medicine may not have been properly or long enough employed. We are of the ſame opinion, and gave our ſentiments on this ſubject in our examination of a work from the ſchool of Pott—Mr. Howard's treatiſe.

Another opinion controverted by our author is, that 'parts once cured are never again contaminated from the ſame ſtock of infection,' or at leaſt that the order in which different parts are ſucceſſively affected by ſubſequent infection, is not the ſame. This opinion is combated leſs ſatisfactorily, but, on the whole, with judgement and ability.

The doctrine, that ſecondary ulcers are incapable of infecting, is oppoſed with great propriety; and the cauſes which prevent mercury from having an uniform effect are well pointed out. Some remarks of leſs moment alſo occur; and the whole ſhows our author to be a diſcerning and judicious practitioner.

Facts and Obſervations relative to the Nature and Origin of the Peſtilential Fever, which prevailed in the City of Philadelphia, in 1793, 1797, *and* 1798. *By the College of Phyſicians of Philadelphia.* 8vo. 9d. Phillips *and* Son. 1799.

We formerly contended, that this fatal diſeaſe was the uſual autumnal remittent, rendered, by various circumſtances, more virulent. The facts and obſervations, however, now preſented to the public, give a very different view of the ſubject, and ſeem to ſhow, very clearly, that it is an imported fever from the Weſt Indies, chiefly from St. Domingo. This concluſion muſt afford great comfort to the exhauſted and almoſt deſpairing Americans.

EDUCATION.

A Conciſe Practical Grammar of the German Tongue. By the Rev. W. Render. 8vo. 5s. *ſewed.* Symonds. 1799.

This is an uſeful practical grammar for beginners; and the method adopted in it is a ſufficient recommendation of the author as a teacher of the German language. The exerciſes are well introduced to ground the learner in the knowledge of the parts of ſpeech in the proper order, and will be of great ſervice to teachers. The common failing of adhering to the Latin grammar is obſervable in ſome parts of this work. The author conjugates the verbs with five inſtead of two tenſes, by introducing the auxiliary verb to make the tenſes nearly correſpond with thoſe in the Latin grammar. This occaſions unneceſſary labour to the Engliſh ſcholar.—At the end of the grammar is a ſelect catalogue of German writers.

A Complete Introduction to the Knowledge of the German Language. Containing the Subſtance of the moſt approved German Grammars, particularly Adelung. And arranged upon a Plan perfectly new and eaſy. By George Crabb. 12*mo.* 6*s. Bound.* Johnſon. 1799.

We have noticed the failing in one German grammar, from the deſire of accommodating the German to the Latin language, which introduced five tenſes in the conjugation of the verb. The work before us goes ſtill farther: our tenſes and modes are ſtill more in-

creased. We have here a present tense, a first perfect, a second perfect, a pluperfect, a first future, and a second future. The modes are a simple conditional mode, a compound conditional, a first imperative and a second imperative. This does not tend to simplify the language, and the learner becomes weary of this laborious mode of conjugating. The German and English tongues have only two tenses; and they express the powers of the Latin and Greek languages in the other tenses by means of auxiliary verbs. It is sufficient for an English scholar to learn the two tenses of the verb in German, and the auxiliary verbs. The mode of teaching the syntax of the language, by exercises adapted to each rule, is very judiciously pursued in this work; and, when the mode of conjugating the verb is corrected, this may be an useful introduction to the German language.

New Tales of the Castle; or, the Noble Emigrants, a Story of Modern Times. By Mrs. Pilkington. 12mo. 2s. Boards. Vernor *and* Hood. 1800.

This little book has been injudiciously named, because it reminds the reader of a work so far superior. In the volumes of Madame de Genlis every reader was interested; the present is calculated only for children.

The History of Jack and his Eleven Brothers: containing their Separation, Travels, Adventures, &c. Intended for the Use of little Brothers and Sisters. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Boards. West *and* Hughes. 1799.

It was extraordinary that Jack's father should have so large a family, and rather more extraordinary that, when the twelve brothers set out to seek their fortune, they should come to a place where twelve roads met. Providential warnings, as this is interpreted to be, and marvellous instances of good fortune, are by no means proper to be impressed upon the minds of children. We should be sorry to see the seven champions, or Valentine and Orson, dismissed from the nursery to make room for Jack and his eleven brothers.

POETRY.

A Loyal Poetical Gratulation, presented to his Majesty, at a Review of the Kentish Yeomanry and Volunteers, August 1, 1799, in Mote Park, Maidstone. By the Rev. W. Cole, Maidstone. 4to. 1s. 6d. Cadell *and* Davies. 1799.

Ninety-eight lines in a quarto pamphlet! and the price eighteenpence! Let a specimen be given of the quality.

> 'If on thy right hand near thy envied throne
> Stands like a rock impregnable thy son,
> Whiffling each low-liv'd slander far away,
> Tow'ring superior in the teeth of day;' P. 15.

In the *teeth of day!* Did the author borrow this elegant phrase from king John's favourite oath?

*Poems on ſeveral Occaſions, including the Petitioner, or a View of the Red-Book; with a Dedication to the Rt. Hon. W******* P***. By J. J. Vaſſar, Eſq.* 8vo. 7s. *ſewed.* Rivingtons. 1799.

Mr. Vaſſar has exerciſed his wit on no ſubject with ſuch ſucceſs as upon his own compoſitions. By the following paſſage he has ſaved us the trouble of criticiſing his book—we wiſh that he had not given us the trouble of reading it.

'I hope I may be allowed one note, juſt to ſay, that as I have infinite pity as well as reſpect for thoſe unfortunate gentlemen whoſe hard fate it is to be reviewers, I am extremely anxious they ſhould have no trouble whatever on my account, and as I do conceive (perhaps very ignorantly) a difficulty may ſometimes ariſe in writing criticiſms on books that have never been read, I beg leave to ſuggeſt the poſſibility that the following may anſwer their purpoſe:

'*Monthly Review.*

'We cannot convey our opinion of theſe poems to our readers better than by quoting the two laſt lines.

'*Writer.* Here is the end of all my verſes.
'*Reader.* Amen. Thank God, for all his mercies.

'*Analytical Review.*

'This volume contains verſes on fifty-four different ſubjects. The longeſt poem has four hundred and thirty-four lines, ſeveral others from forty to eighty, ſome have twenty-eight, many twenty-four, twelve and eight, a few have four only, and ſome but two—We like theſe laſt beſt.

'*European Magazine.*

'Maugré the inſinuation of this writer, we aſſure him, that we have read his book, that we ſubſcribe to his opinion of it, and that (therefore) we adopt his criticiſms, which bring to our mind what old Lafus ſays of Paroles, 'Strange that he ſhou'd know what he is, and yet be what he is.

'*Gentleman's Magazine.*

'Our duty to the public compelled us to open this volume, the editors of the Lady's Magazine may perhaps read it.

'If, however, it is proper (as I believe it is) that crimes of this ſort, which lead to (poetical) damnation, ſhould, in the firſt inſtance, in order to prevent a repetition, have no mercy ſhewn them, then the following will do better, as being more ſevere, and beſides, a critic, in admitting the candor of an author, may perhaps gain ſome credit for his own.

'*Critical Review.*

'We can give this author credit for his candor, though we cannot give him praiſe for his poems; he ſeems to have eſtimated them

with the utmost impartiality and justice, for in his dedication he says (and so we say too) genius denies them, wit and correctness both disclaim them, and poetry disavows them—What could make this author publish?'

'Quere—Messieurs, what makes you?' P. 23.

Cecco's Complaint, translated from Il Lamento di Cecco da Varlungo of Francesco Baldovini, by John Hunter, Esq. 8vo. 2s. Cadell and Davies. 1800.

We have seen none of Mr. Hunter's productions so good as this version of an admired Italian poem. The original is written in the dialect of the Tuscan peasants; and the translator has imitated this by the general familiarity of his language, not by the introduction of any provincialisms. The concluding stanzas follow.

'In no fine monument, nor holy place,
With rich, or happy, shall my bones be mated;
But, in thy cottage-path, a little space
Shall hold the shepherd thou so long hast hated.
And that the world shall know of my disgrace,
The whole shall simply on a stone be stated.
From first to last unwary swains may see
The end I came to but for loving thee.

'Then welcome death, and in my winding sheet
Let me be carry'd soon in sad procession,
And if, within my breast, thou love shall meet,
O drive the traitor out from his possession.
Thou, only thou, canst quench my burning heat,
And wholly free me from my long oppression.
Then welcome death! and with one friendly blow
At once extinguish both my life and woe.

'Farewel my little farm, my flowery mead,
That long have nourish'd me with kind supplies;
Since my unfriendly destiny's decreed
That only death can dry my tearful eyes;
Thy soil shall lightly o'er my bones be spread,
When Sandra's frown and smile alike I prize.
Thy pleasant prospect I no more shall view,
'Tis my last look, and now a long adieu.

'Thus Cecco griev'd, and from his mistress hied
By some heroic death to end his woe;
But as the sun he in the west espied,
Laid down to sleep before he gave the blow:
And when he woke, reflecting if he died
His little farm would all to ruin go,
He, hence consenting milder thoughts to nourish,
Resolv'd to live that his affairs might flourish.' P. 55.

A glossary of the difficult and mutilated expressions is annexed.

Peter not Infallible! or, a Poem, addressed to Peter Pindar, Esq. on reading his Nil Admirari, a late illiberal Attack on the Bishop of London; together with unmanly Abuse of Mrs. Hannah More. Also Lines occasioned by his Ode to some Robin Red-Breasts in a Country Cathedral. 4to. 2s. Chapple. 1800.

This gentleman attempts, in his prose, to imitate Peter Pindar, and, in his poetry, to satirise him. 'I too am a poet!' he says—we must beg leave to contradict him.

A Melancholy but True Story. 4to. 1s. 6d. Hurst.

A woman, after begging bread in vain for her starving children, steals a loaf: the baker follows her, and snatches the bread from her. In the course of the same night, she and her infants perish by famine. This is the 'melancholy but true story.' It is related with much indignation, but with little feeling.

DRAMA.

Poverty and Nobleness of Mind: A Play, in three Acts. Translated from the German of Augustus Von Kotzebue. By Maria Geisweiler. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Geisweiler. 1799.

Kotzebue again! If the better pieces only of this writer had been translated—his Benyowsky—his Adelaide of Wulfingen—his Reconciliation,—perhaps his popularity in England would not have been so extensive, but his real fame would have been greater.

The present piece has the characteristics of a modern English comedy;—caricatured characters, and cant language, with some effusions of sentiment. We extract the scene in which a daughter discovers herself to her father.

'*H. Plum.* Let me with few words relate to you the history of my short-lived happiness, and my long suffering! Condemn, if you will, my enthusiasm, but spare my poor heart.—I was once rich,—then, in a good wife, I possessed the only happiness on this earth; content and peace. When the Creator had finished the works of nature, he wished to add a master-piece, and created woman!—Do not require a picture of our matrimonial tenderness.—Those who have not experienced it, will not understand me—and those who have, never will forget it.

" For her I lov'd alone amongst all other beings,
And her alone I chose from all the world beside,
And from the whole world alone I would still chuse her."

—Quick flew the years of our love, in an eternity, where she now—Ah, without me,—wanders amidst the choirs of angels. The birth of my daughter was the joyfullest and last moment of my happiness!—The mother died—My grief border'd on madness, I would not see the child—No, I did not love it! for its existence

was the bane of mine, its first breath was the death-stroke of my earthly joys.

'*Louisa.* The innocent being—

'*H. Plum.* You are right—But who does not regard with horror the sword which has murdered a friend? and yet the sword is innocent.—In the first ravings of my sorrow, I took a thoughtless oath, to banish this child so long from my presence, till through a resemblance with its mother, it could lay claim to fatherly love, and induce me to forget its innocent crime. I flew the grave, which had swallowed up all my joys. I searched for comfort among mankind, I related my sorrow, and was ridiculed: "My God! is he the first who has lost a wife? Will he be the last?" I was obliged to hear this;—was obliged to hear my bitter misery whispered about for artifice, deceit, or eccentricity, in the very moment when I could have said with Hallern:

"O name me but a misery like mine,
And then the right of tears deny me."—

—What I felt was laugh'd at, what I did was ironically criticised; they watched me, as they would watch all those, who neither walk or go like other people; and when a feeling heart unbent itself towards me, then slanderers whispered behind my back; till at last I remained alone! lock'd every thing up in my own bosom, and hated mankind!—Then did my high-spun imagination search for food amidst my melancholy. I turned superstitious, raised spirits, wrote letters to my departed wife, and even hoped at times really for answers. At last I found out this closet, where I collected all the relics of my good wife, where her spirit every where surrounds me. *(With inward tenderness and agitation)* Yes, here she lives —I feel her presence—She is near me—how else could I feel myself so well? On this chair she has sat—*(looking on the back of it)* —Here is still a little powder out of her hair, I have carefully preserved it.—At this table she has sat and wrote, with this same pen, so many tender epistles to her happy husband! Here are her letters! Every one is a remembrance of her excellent heart! her faithful love! these gloves she knit for me—this waistcoat was a present from her on my birth day—this lock of hair was cut off after her death—Ah! and here is her picture! *(he tears away the curtain).*

'*Louisa (with uplifted hands falls at the foot of the picture).* My mother!' P. 121.

Sighs; or, the Daughter, a Comedy, in five Acts: as it is performed at the Theatre-Royal, Hay-Market. Taken from the German Drama of Kotzebue, with Alterations. By Prince Hoare. 8vo. 2s. Stace. 1799.

This is an alteration of the above-mentioned play for the English stage. We give the scene answering to the last quotation.

'*Leopold.* Hear me, Louisa, censure me, but pity and excuse

me. I was once rich, for I poſſeſſed, in a virtuous wife, the only true riches of this world, Content and Cheerfulneſs. When the Creator finiſhed his glorious work of nature, he added its laſt bright ornament, Woman!—I loved one alone among all beings.—"I had choſen her from a world, and from a world I would ſtill chooſe her."—The years of our firſt love fled ſwiftly into that eternity where ſhe now reſides.—The birth of a daughter was the deareſt and laſt moment of my happineſs.—Scarcely had ſhe beheld the light, when her mother died—*(Louiſa appears affected)* her infant cries were the dirge of all my joys on earth.

'*Louiſa*. Poor innocent!

'*Leopold*. While yet Emilia's grave was freſh, I claſp'd her infant to my boſom, and, flying from the world, reſolved to live for my child alone.—She was the only treaſure left to me on earth.

'*Louiſa*. And why did you forſake that child?

'*Leopold*. Mark me—As I convey'd my little one to the foſtering refuge I had provided for her, methought her mother's ſpirit beamed in her features.—Oh! what did that look effect!—"The keen remembrance of my loſs pierced anew into my ſoul."—I dreaded to turn my eyes again towards my child—her exiſtence had deſtroyed what was dearer to me than my own.—I entruſted her with thoſe, of whoſe kind hearts I was well aſſured—Buſineſs called me away—concerns of my wife's fortune—*(after a pauſe, he ſhudders)* I have never returned to my child.

'*Louiſa*. Had ſhe deſerved this?

'*Leopold*. Day after day, year after year, have I ardently ſighed to meet my child again. But ſhe is well, and happy, and what could my preſence beſtow? The ſight of my affliction—of my miſery.—I "ſtrove to rouſe me from deſpair—I turned from the grave, which had devoured my hopes, and ſought for conſolation among men—I told them my ſorrows, and met deriſion—until at laſt I ſhut my boſom againſt the world, and" fled, where only I could eſcape torment—to ſolitude.

'*Louiſa*. Ah! I'm afraid you found little comfort there.

'*Leopold*. Such as you ſee me now poſſeſs. Yet here has fancy furniſhed me with ample food for ſadneſs;—here have I framed a ſacred record of my beloved Emilia;—here I gathered every remember'd object, that had been dear to her;—yes—here her ſpirit dwells; here often in my thoughts has communed with me.—Elſe, how could I have endured ſo much?

[*During theſe laſt lines, Leopold takes Louiſa's hand with great emotion, and leads her towards the door of the cabinet;—ſtops ſuddenly.*]

Wilt thou not tremble, girl? Yet, 'tis imagination fills the ſcene—all is but ſhew—the mockery of my heart's pangs.

[*Opens the folding doors of the cabinet, and diſcovers, within, an emblematic tranſparency, in which is the name of Emilia, written in large characters.*]

'*Louisa (nearly fainting, falls on the ground).* My mother!'
P. 78.

The alteration of the picture to an *emblematic transparency* is a paltry stage trick.

Fortune's Frolic: a Farce, in two Acts; as performed at the Theatres Royal in Covent-Garden and the Hay-Market: written by John Till Allingham. 8vo. 1s. Ridgway. 1799.

If there were a regular form of passing sentence upon these crimes against common sense, critics would rejoice at being freed from the trouble of hunting for terms of condemnation. We find the present author guilty of committing nonsense.

Management: a Comedy, in five Acts. As performed at the Theatre-Royal, Covent-Garden. By Frederick Reynolds. 8vo. 2s. Longman *and* Rees. 1799.

This is a comedy in the usual style of Mr. Reynolds. It is unnecessary to trace the plan through all its intricacies and pantomimic tricks. Follies like these are not manufactured to be read; and it is a miserable symptom of public taste when we hear of their being represented.

Joanna of Montfaucon; a Dramatic Romance of the Fourteenth Century: as performed at the Theatre-Royal, Covent-Garden, formed upon the Plan of the Germa Drama of Kotzebue: and adapted to the English Stage by Richard Cumberland. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Lackington, Allen, *and* Co. 1800.

This drama was designed to please the mob by the bustle of its action and the splendor of its scenery. Its faults are not the faults of Mr. Cumberland. A castle stormed, a prisoner escaping through a cavern, and a battle, form the chief incidents of the play.

NOVELS, &c.

The Orphan Heiress of Sir Gregory. An Historical Fragment, of the last Century. 12mo. 4s. *Boards.* Law. 1799.

In this interesting little work we only object to the impropriety of affixing imaginary guilt on historical characters. The novel displays much feeling and much imagination. The following is a fine passage: to understand it, the reader must be apprised that the heiress has been poisoned by a jelly ornamented with a white rose.

'We were seated, with company, at dinner, when tidings were brought of the heiress's death. I observed, that while his friends were congratulating Hacket on an event which secured to him the free possession of his estates, he turned pale, and touched no more meat; but soon drank himself into a state of intoxication.—It was not till a few days ago that I saw him again, when he desired me to

accompany him to the manſion, whence he was to proceed to Raudern's ſiſter. He intended to have ſlept here to-night; but he ſleeps a ſleep from which he ſhall not awake before all the dead ariſe. And I hold it merciful in providence, that I am not involved in the ſame fate. The thunder was alike tremendous over my head; and the lightnings enveloped me as well as Hacket.'

"What!" ſaid I, "did heaven ſtrike his hard heart with its avenging thunder?"

"Ah, ſir," continued he, "in the black whirlwind his unprepared ſoul flew to the everlaſting tribunal.—The ſtorm overtook us as we entered the foreſt. I need not mention its violence: this manſion muſt have ſhaken with it. In the midſt, and after a momentary interval of darkneſs, as we rode ſwiftly along, the next blaze of lightning diſcovered, without our ſenſe of its approach, a white ſteed ſuddenly galloping between us, on which ſat a female figure; a pale roſe, that ſeemed to be of living fire, flaming in her hand. The inſtant we beheld it, Hacket ſcreamed out, 'O God! O God!' and his horſe flew with tenfold rapidity, the white ſteed keeping cloſe beſide him. My blood curdled with horror as I ſpurred my horſe to follow. We were ſoon out of all road, flying through thickets of trees that at any other time I ſhould have thought impaſſable: the thunder increaſing, and the lightning enwrapping the objects before me, ſo that I ſeemed to be purſuing ſteeds formed of the lightning itſelf. Perceiving that we approached the railing of the ancient deep ſtone quarry on the north border of the foreſt, I cried aloud to ſtop. For the firſt time, Hacket turned his head. The ſheeted lightning of the moment ſhewed his countenance livid and ghaſtly; his eyes ſtarting from their ſockets. I ſaw death in his face. No mortal ſtrength could ſtop his horſe. His flight was urged by fear, in its moſt powerful form. The fiery roſe flamed beſide him. He flew over the railing. In the midſt of the thunder, I heard a long and dreadful ſhriek. In that moment the white ſteed ſeemed to mix with the lightning, and diſſolve in the clouds. Almoſt breathleſs myſelf, and my horſe panting, I reached the railing. I diſmounted, and ſtood ſome time looking over. Nothing could I hear, but the thunder: nothing could I ſee, but the lightning, till the ſtorm began to ſubſide, which appeared to retire with the terrific ſhadow that had led us to this tremendous precipice. Then, indeed, I heard the troubled waves of the river daſhing againſt the bottom of the quarry. I pondered awhile, till the rain began to fall. I partly knew the direction in which the manſion ſtands from the quarry, and, ſorrowfully remounting my horſe, hither am I come."

"And you ſhall be welcome, ſir," ſaid I: "for I perceive that you have in your mind the ſeeds of virtue, which your unfortunate aſſociation with the guilty has not been able to root up. Let them grow and flouriſh. Let the alarming cataſtrophe of this night make its due impreſſion on all our hearts. 'Knowing, therefore, the terrors of the Lord, let us perſuade men.' How ſwift and ſignal has

been his vengeance! 'Our God is a consuming fire.'—My friend," continued I, addressing the physician, "our doubts have been solved by thunders and lightnings, by winged messengers expressly sent from heaven." P. 229.

The tale is rendered more interesting by the religious feelings which pervade it. Even the unjust intemperance with which the puritans are mentioned in it, is in character.

The Natural Daughter. With Portraits of the Leadenhead Family. A Novel. By Mrs. Robinson. 2 *Vols.* 12*mo.* 7*s.* Longman *and* Rees. 1799.

From a perusal of the first pages of this novel we were led to expect a production superior to the general trash of the circulating library: we have, however, been completely disappointed; nor can the interspersion of a few pieces of elegant poetry, in these two volumes, protect them from the unqualified censure which the absurd improbability of the incidents related in them, and the plotless insipidity of the story, demand. The characters of Martha and Mrs. Morley, on their introduction to the notice of the reader, give promise of interesting if not of original delineation; but the promise is not fulfilled; and we are sorry to remark, that, in the present instance, Mrs. Robinson has produced a novel which is not likely to obtain a high rank even among the common-place effusions that periodically regale the not very fastidious appetites of subscription readers.

A Family Story. By Mr. Smith. 3 *Vols.* 12*mo.* 10*s.* 6*d. Boards.* Crosby *and* Letterman. 1800.

We have perused many novels of greater spirit in the composition, but not of more moral tendency than the Family Story. The developement of penetrating and undaunted benevolence in the character of Henry, affords an useful lesson to the mind of youth, and a proper reproof of the authoritative assumptions of age, undistinguished by the judgement which experience might be expected to produce.

Albert; or, the Wilds of Strathnavern. By Elizabeth Helme. 4 *Vols.* 12*mo.* 14*s. Boards.* Low. 1799.

This novel contains little originality or strength of character; but it is amusing in its story, and respectable for the propriety of moral sentiment. Many false notions of honour are properly exposed, and the vices of dissipation are painted with a truth of colouring that confers equal credit on the intentions and the abilities of the authoress.

Fashionable Involvements: a Novel. By Mrs. Gunning. 3 *Vols.* 12*mo.* 10*s.* 6*d. Boards.* Longman *and* Rees. 1800.

The texture of this novel is too slight even for *summer wear*: the

ſtory is uninteresting, the characters are inſignificant, and the language is both feeble and vulgar.

The Lord of Hardivyle, an Hiſtorical Legend of the Fourteenth Century. 12mo. 3s. 6d. *Boards.* Treppaſs. 1800.

'———Quis talia fando
Temperet à lacrymis?'

is the motto to this little abortion of romance. How the author was affected in the narration we know not; but we are certainly diſpoſed to pity him for ſo wretched a miſcarriage.

MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

An Enquiry into the State of the Public Mind amongſt the Lower Claſſes: and on the Means of turning it to the Welfare of the State. In a Letter to William Wilberforce, Eſq. M. P. By Arthur Young, Eſq. F. R. S. 8vo. 1s. Richardſon.

Among many trite obſervations we meet with three paſſages which deſerve particular attention; two, on the ſtate of our churches as to the convenience afforded to the poor for hearing the word; the other, on the nature of the word too frequently adminiſtered.

'It has afforded' (ſays this writer, ſpeaking of the arrangements in churches) 'a ſubject of melancholy reflection, to ſee nearly their whole ſpace occupied by pews, to which the poor have no admittance: the aiſles in many ſo narrow, as to contain very few, compared with the population of this great city, and none commodiouſly. In ſome churches, few or no benches to ſit on, and no mats to kneel on. A ſtranger would think that our churches were built, as indeed they are, only for the rich. Under ſuch an arrangement, where are the lower claſſes to hear the word of God—that goſpel, which in our Saviour's time on earth, was preached more peculiarly to the poor?—Where are they to learn the doctrines of that truly excellent religion which exhorts to content, and to ſubmiſſion to the higher powers?' P. 19.

'Modern philoſophy is the ſcourge of human ſocieties; religion their beſt ſupport. But call not the people of this great city to hear the leſſons of religion, while you nearly exclude them from the temples of her worſhip. The poor are every where ten times more numerous than the higher claſſes: but meaſure the ſpace occupied by the pews and by the aiſles. Reflect on the convenience and comfort of ſitting, and of kneeling on cuſhions, and compare it with ſtanding on a pavement inſufficient to contain an hundredth part of thoſe who, for any thing we know to the contrary, would attend the public worſhip if they could be ſeated with decency.' P. 20.

In many or moſt of the churches of the continent the poor and

the rich sit, kneel, and stand together; but the arrangements in our churches make a distinction which, however justifiable in other places, is contrary to the express words of St. James, and the general spirit of the Christian religion. On the word preached are these remarks.

'Do more than build: provide preachers who shall inculcate the vital Christianity of the church of England; for that alone can administer true comfort to the miserable, the distressed, the poor. The fine sermons so often heard upon morals, not being firmly rooted in the peculiar doctrines of the Gospel, are ill adapted to the lower classes; the passions are too powerful for such persuasives: but vital Christianity is formed for interesting the heart, and dispensing consolation to evils, over which mere morality idly plays.' P. 22.

We shall always encourage every attempt to banish the mere moral essay from the pulpit; but, in making vital Christianity the basis of preaching, we must guard the divine against the vital Christianity of the writer to whom this letter is addressed. Let it be sought only in the Scriptures, and let the preacher keep himself within the bounds fixed by the sobriety of the church of England. Let him be earnest, serious, evangelical; preaching from the heart and to the heart. Let our Saviour and his Apostles be his guides; and, when he remembers that the Gospel is to be preached to the poor, he should also remember that he may do this without being either fanatical or theatrical.

Remarks on the Posthumous Works of the late Right Hon. Edmund Burke; and on the Preface published by his Executors, the Doctors French Laurence and Walker King. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

The interest taken by the public in Mr. Burke and his writings, is now so much on the decline, that very little attention is likely to be paid to the striking instances of misrepresentation in his life and political character given to the world by his executors. His real character is sketched in this pamphlet; and by it all his speeches and actions may be judged.

'The man who thinks with him is an angel; the man who presumes to differ from him in opinion is actuated by the most unworthy motives.—That Mr. Burke possessed uncommon talents is beyond dispute, but through life he was the slave of passion and prejudice.' P. 28.

The great question here discussed is this: On what account did Mr. Burke receive his pensions from government? After examining various causes to which his rewards have, by some, been injudiciously attributed, the writer draws the following conclusion.

'One thing is certain—and a man must be blind to conviction who doubts the fact—that Mr. Burke received his pensions, because his writings and speeches on the French revolution divided the op-

position, and not for his long, laborious, and splendid services.' P. 56.

In other points, the writer proves himself to be well acquainted with the political events of Mr. Burke's active life; and, if he does not allow to him the merit of disinterestedness, the want of this virtue is palliated by the usage of the times.

'We do not mean, by stating these facts, to cast a reflection upon the memory of Mr. Burke; he did what almost every man, who at any time possessed power, in England has done, in providing for himself and his relations.' P. 8.

The abusive language of Mr. Burke at the time of the American war, the king's illness, and the trial of Mr. Hastings, is not so easily passed over; and his unconstitutional sentiments are pointed out with proper severity. Those who wish to form a just idea of Mr. Burke's character will do well to contrast these remarks with the account given of him by his executors.

A Laconic Epistle, addressed to his Royal Highness, the Duke of York, containing some cursory Remarks on the late Expedition, by a Military Officer. 8vo. 1s. Egerton. 1800.

This is a very lame panegyric of the duke of York; but, however exaggerated some points may be, all will join in the entreaty of the writer, that his royal highness 'will not hazard in future a life so truly dear and valuable.'

Reflections on Men and Things; translated from a French Manuscript of the late J. G. Zimmerman. 8vo. 5s. *Boards.* Symonds. 1799.

Whether this miserably dull collection of sentiment be really the sweepings of the study of the late M. Zimmermann, or, what is much more probable, an impudent attempt to impose on the public, we can venture to assert that the publication will be treated with the contemptuous neglect which it deserves.

The Beauties of Kotzebue; containing the most interesting Scenes, Sentiments, Speeches, &c. in all his admired Dramas. Freely translated; connected and digested under appropriate Heads, alphabetically arranged: with Biographical Anecdotes of the Author; a Summary of his Dramatic Fables, and cursory Remarks. By Walley Chamberlain Oulton. 12mo. 4s. 6d. *Boards.* Crosby *and* Letterman. 1800.

A work sufficiently explained by its title-page.

ERRATUM.

In p. 297 of this Volume, line 30, *dele* the word *question.*

APPENDIX

TO THE

TWENTY-EIGHTH VOLUME

OF THE

NEW ARRANGEMENT

OF THE

CRITICAL REVIEW.

FOREIGN ARTICLES.

Histoire des Mathématiques; dans laquelle on rend Compte de leurs Progrès depuis leur Origine jusqu'à nos Jours; où l'on expose le Tableau et le Développement des principales Découvertes dans toutes les Parties des Mathématiques, les Contestations qui se sont élevées entre les Mathématiciens, et les principaux Traits de la Vie des plus célèbres. Nouvelle Edition, considérablement augmentée, et prolongée jusque vers l'Epoque actuelle. Par J. F. Montucla, de l'Institut National de France.

History of the Mathematics; containing an Account of their Progress from their Commencement to the present Time; showing the chief Discoveries in all Parts of the Mathematics, the Disagreements which have arisen among Mathematicians, and the principal Traits in the Lives of those who have been the most celebrated. A new Edition, considerably augmented, and continued to the present Time. By J. F. Montucla, of the National Institute of France. 4to. *Vol. I. and II.* Imported by De Boffe. 1799.

THE first edition of this valuable work appeared so long since as the year 1758, in two volumes, 4to. when the learned author was apparently too young for the due accomplishment of a task of such labour and magnitude, being then but little more than thirty years of age. The advantage, however, of an early habit of study, both in the languages and the sciences, joined to the great benefit arising from his office of royal librarian in

the Louvre, had enabled him to produce, at ſo early an age, a work which, in other reſpects, might well require the maturity of ſixty years. The work was favourably received, and gained the author great applauſe, as well in this country as on the continent; and the ſale was ſufficiently great to produce a demand for a ſecond edition. To accompliſh this new taſk, however, from the natural and accidental alteration of certain circumſtances, became little leſs difficult than the firſt: the vaſt quantity of new and curious matter to be extracted and detailed, requiring more time and attention than were conſiſtent with his new employment, which was that of firſt commiſſioner of the king's buildings; or, what we ſhould call, of the Board of Works.

The firſt edition of this Hiſtory of Mathematics brought down the account only to the cloſe of the ſeventeenth century. M. Montucla's labours, therefore, were directed to the continuation of the hiſtory, as well as to the collection and introduction of much new matter belonging to the former period, which had been diſcovered ſince the date of the former edition. The work, however, proceeded very ſlowly, on account of M. Montucla's other avocations; ſo that, about the year 1789, he had brought down his hiſtory only to the middle of the preſent century; when, as he then informed the writer of this article, he found it neceſſary to aſſociate with him in the work a young man (M. Percivalle), well ſkilled in mathematics and the modern analyſis, a hopeful *élève* of the celebrated La Grange, for continuing the hiſtory to the end of the preſent century.

'Thus' (he ſays), 'in three or four years, I expect to have a complete hiſtory of mathematics; and I dare to hope, that, if my firſt edition has had ſome ſucceſs, notwithſtanding many things which are here improved, the new one will have a more juſt right to that title: but it is a cruel thing to be continually dragged on the one ſide by one's inclination, and on the other by the occupations of an office neceſſary to our exiſtence and that of our family.'

The circumſtances, however, of the late revolution in France, as the author farther informs us in the new preface, having left him more leiſure than he deſired, the neceſſity of occupying himſelf, or rather the neceſſity of labouring to ſupply the loſs of a comfortable employment, and of the greater part of a fortune acquired by the labour of near thirty years, induced him to comply with the ſolicitations of his learned friends, and complete the work himſelf.

The conſequence has been the appearance of this new edition of the hiſtory, at leaſt of the firſt two volumes of it; which bring the account down to the ſame date as before,

namely, the end of the 17th century; and two more volumes are promised, which will contain the numerous and important improvements of the present or eighteenth century; the publication of which, we trust, will not be interrupted by the recent death of the esteemed author.

One of the most interesting objects to the philosophic eye, is, doubtless, the developement of the human mind, and of the various branches of its knowledge. The sagacious Bacon lamented the want of histories of this kind; and Pliny remarked, that there were hardly any writers to be found, who had had the idea of transmitting to posterity the names of such individuals as had nobly laboured either to succour the wants of mankind by useful inventions, or to enlarge the faculties of the mind by their meditations and researches. Still less are any to be found, who have thought of representing the progress of these inventions, or of exhibiting the progress and developement of the human mind.

This was the motive which, at the beginning of this century, suggested to M. Monmort the idea of the history of mathematics.—'It is greatly to be wished' (he says, in one of his letters to Bernoulli), 'that some person would take the trouble of showing how, and in what order, the mathematical discoveries have arisen, and to whom we are obliged for them. We have the history of painting, of music, of medicine; a good history of mathematics would be a work much more curious and more useful. How delightful would it be to see the connexion of methods, of new theories, from the earliest times down to our own! Such a work, well executed, might be regarded as the history of the human mind; it being in this science, more than in any other, that man evinces the excellence of the understanding given him by God, to raise him above all other creatures.'

Monmort did not satisfy himself with merely recommending such an history. He actually undertook and executed a considerable part, which was unfortunately lost on the destruction or dispersion of his papers, at his death.

Some of the ancients, indeed, formed faint ideas of a similar kind. Theophrastus wrote the history of arithmetic, of geometry, and of astronomy. The two last sciences found, near the same time, an historian in Eudemus, another philosopher of the Aristotelian school; and, a little before the Christian æra, Geminus traced the history of geometry. But, unfortunately, all that now remains to us of these curious works, is the little which, it seems, Proclus extracted and employed in his prolix comment on the first book of Euclid. The other writers in antiquity, who have left us any traces of the history of these sciences, are Diogenes Laertius, in his Vitæ Philosophorum; Plutarch, in his Placita Philosophorum;

Stobæus, in his Eclogæ Physicæ; the anonymous author of the Philosophumena; and Achilles Tatius, in his Isagoge ad Arati Phænomena: so small is the number of these scattered remains, the greater part of which are disfigured by gross credulity and ignorance of the subjects!

Among the moderns, the principal authors are as follow. It is sufficient to mention such works as the Chronica de' Mathematici, &c. by Bernardino Baldi, and the Chronologia clarorum Mathematicorum, by Blancanus; these tracts being only dry catalogues of names and dates. Vossius's work, entitled, De Universæ Matheseos Naturâ et Constitutione Liber, cui subjungitur Chronologia Mathematicorum (Lug. Bat. 1660), contains little more than the divisions and subdivisions of the mathematics, and an enumeration of the authors, with the titles of their works. It is a work which manifests little knowledge in those sciences. It is little more than a dry chronicle of the more ancient authors, and cannot be of much use to the general historian of the mathematics.

Our Dr. Wallis published, in 1684, a Treatise on Algebra, historical and practical. Considered as a work of science, it is certainly worthy of the learned author; but, as an historical account, it must be acknowledged to be imperfect, and in some respects incorrect. His admiration of Harriot seems to have occasioned his neglect or disparagement of some other able writers.

Such are, till the end of the last century, the chief historical writings on the mathematics. Some of a more interesting nature have been since that time produced, the principal of which are the following.

Weidler's History of Astronomy appeared, in 4to. at Wittenberg, in 1741: this is rather a very extensive notice concerning mathematicians, and the titles of their works, than a proper history of astronomy. In 1742, was published, in 4to. at Leipsig, Heilbroner's Historia Matheseos ab Orbe condito ad Seculum XV; a work which, besides that it only extends to the close of the fifteenth century, ought to be considered as a large unformed mass of materials, rather than a regular history.—At the end of the fifth volume of Wolf's Course of Mathematics, we find a tract, De Præcipuis Scriptis Mathematicis; being a judicious selection of notices concerning mathematical works. In 1755, was published at Paris, in three volumes 12mo. the General and particular History of Astronomy, by M. Esteve; a work which is full of errors and inaccuracies.

Besides those works, which appeared before the first edition of Montucla's history, there have been presented to the world, since that period, several others, to which probably his work gave rise; and of which he doubtless availed himself in

preparing his second edition. These are, Bailly's History of Astronomy, ancient and modern, in five volumes, 4to.; Dr. Priestley's History of Optics, in one volume, 4to.; besides the History of Trigonometry, prefixed to Dr. Hutton's Logarithms; and the History of Algebra, under that article in the Mathematical Dictionary of the same author; from all of which Montucla may have drawn copious intelligence.

We now proceed to take notice more particularly of the work before us, and observe its nature, plan, extent, and execution. In his account of the mathematical sciences, our author ascends, as high as it is possible, toward their origin, pursuing their faintest traces among the most ancient people. Sometimes, indeed, he substitutes expositions rather fictitious, but probably little different from the truth, instead of a developement utterly unknown. Thence he proceeds to give an account of the progress of those branches of science in all ages, particularly showing the discoveries belonging to each, or where their first indications appear. And although he did not propose to write the history of all persons who have cultivated the mathematical sciences, he has not wholly omitted that branch, having given brief accounts of the lives and writings of the most celebrated mathematicians. He also gives an account of the disputes which have sometimes arisen among authors; in which particular he, perhaps, decides as fairly as can well be expected, after a due allowance for national partiality. On this head we have a remarkable instance in the case of the algebraic improvements between Descartes and Harriot. Dr. Wallis, in his account of this affair, had, perhaps, been too much influenced by partiality in favour of the latter, which has probably, by irritation, hurried Montucla still more violently away in favour of the former.—Our author has also paid particular attention in presenting a distinct idea, and the true principles of all the important theories which compose the system of mathematics.

Such is the general plan which Montucla proposed to himself in this work, and which he has executed with great ability and success. We may add, with regard to the plan, that the histories of the sciences are given in chronological order; that is, of each branch of the science, one after another, first from the beginning down to a certain period or æra of the world; next, the same branches over again; thence down to some other period; again, thence to another remarkable æra.

The first part of the work contains the history of the mathematics, from their first discoverable origin, to the destruction of the Greek empire. It is thus subdivided: 1. Preliminary discourse on the nature, the divisions, and the utility of the mathematics; 2. The origin of the different branches of mathematics, and their history among the most ancient people of

the world; 3. The history, from their transplantation into Greece, till the foundation of the Alexandrine school; 4. From the foundation of that school, to the commencement of the Christian æra; and, 5. From that æra, to the fall of the Greek empire.

The second part comprises the history of the mathematical sciences among several of the oriental nations. The divisions of this part are, 1. History of the mathematics among the Arabians and Persians; and, 2. Among the Chinese and the Indians.

The third part contains the history of the same sciences among the western nations, to the close of the sixteenth century. It is subdivided thus: 1. State of these sciences among the Romans, and their progress to the end of the fourteenth century; 2. Their history during the fifteenth century; 3. Progress of the pure mathematics during the sixteenth century; 4. Progress of astronomy, and of the branches dependent on that science, in the seventeenth century; and, 5. The history of mechanics and optics during the same century.

The fourth, or last part, comprehends the history of the mathematics during the seventeenth century, in the following divisions: 1. Progress of geometry and the pure mathematics, as treated after the manner of the ancients, during that century; 2. Of geometry and analytics, treated in the manner of Descartes, during the same century; 3. Progress of optics to the middle of the seventeenth century; 4. History of astronomy during the first half of that century; 5. Progress of mechanics during the same period; 6. On the improvements in geometry, and particularly on the rise of the new analytic calculus during the latter half of the seventeenth century; 7, 8. Progress of mechanics and of astronomy in the same time; and, 9. The history of optics, from the middle to the end of that century. These last two articles, however, are transposed in this second edition: in other respects, the order of arrangement is the same as in the first; but all the articles are greatly enlarged, and in many respects altered. Indeed the two new volumes contain little short of double the quantity of matter of the former; and in like proportion is the number of the plates also increased. Those augmentations are made, partly by a general incorporation in every page and paragraph, and partly by notes and additions at the end of the chapters.

Such are the plan and the contents of this work, a work of the first rank, both in point of labour and execution. It may be doubted, however, by many, whether the form of discussion and arrangement be the very best that might be devised. By treating of all the sciences nearly together, at certain different intervals, it easily appears what was their general state, in

different nations and quarters, at various periods of time. But, on the other hand, each branch is frequently interrupted, and its connexion and progress broken, by being thus scattered in different portions over the work. Perhaps it would be in some respects a preferable way, to detail the whole of each of the sciences separately, from beginning to end, regularly one after another, and in alphabetical order.

As we have hinted at the partiality of Montucla for his countrymen, in regard to contested discoveries, particularly in the case of Harriot, Descartes, and Wallis, it may not be improper here to notice some of the circumstances of that case more particularly. In the first place, he charges Harriot with ignorance as to the negative roots of equations (p. 107, vol. ii.), on these slender or false pretences, viz. that, in the general equations, this mathematician inserted none that had all their roots negative; which is manifestly false, as may be seen in the second section, p. 12, &c. of Harriot's book, where he generates all the equations from all sorts of roots, as to the combination of the signs, either all positive or all negative, or a mixture of the two sorts. Secondly, he accuses Harriot, because he finds only the positive roots of equations; which is no proof that he was not aware of the negative ones; for these he omitted, as not then suiting his purpose: but he well knew, and he shows, how many roots every equation has, also how many of them are positive, and, consequently, that the rest are negative: he knew also how to change the negative roots into positive, and the positive to negative; namely, by changing the signs of every second term. In short, besides reducing the real inventions of Harriot to as small a number as he can,—indeed more so than is consistent with truth,—Montucla contrives, by qualifying expressions, to disparage them, in comparison with others, that are often of an inferior nature.

On the other hand, he labours to ascribe as many inventions and improvements as possible to his countryman Descartes; although the real discoveries of that philosopher in algebra were very few indeed, whatever might be his genius in other respects, or his merit in applying algebra, such as he found it, to the improvement and extension of geometry.

Many of the inventions, which our author ascribes to Descartes, are falsely attributed to him: thus, he says (p. 114), that Descartes was the author of the method of denoting the powers of a quantity, by means of the numeral exponents annexed to it; but the fact is, that this method of denoting the powers was employed by many algebraists long before the time of Descartes (namely, by Stifelius, Peletarius, Bombelli, Stevinus, Albert Girard, and many others), for po-

fitive and negative exponents, and alfo for fractional and irrational or furd numbers.

Montucla falls into another error when he afferts, that to Defcartes we owe the knowledge of the nature and ufe of negative roots, and that he firft introduced them into geometry and algebra: for the negative roots in algebra were treated of by Cardan, by Harriot, by Girard, and many others; and by the laft they were alfo introduced into geometry.

Montucla likewife falfely afcribes to Defcartes the difcovery, that every equation has as many pofitive roots as there are changes in the figns of its terms, from plus to minus, and from minus to plus. This property was before difcovered and noticed by Cardan and Vieta.

Our author alfo attributes to Defcartes the invention of the *Method of Indeterminates*, by means of which he probably found out his rule for diffolving a biquadratic equation into two quadratics, with the aid of the refolution of a cubic equation; we fay *probably*, becaufe Defcartes fimply lays down the rule for that refolution, without giving any inveftigation of it; and yet Montucla fays exprefsly, that Defcartes *did* inveftigate the rule in that way, without any pofitive authority for the affertion. But even if Defcartes *did* inveftigate the rule in that way, viz. by the method of indeterminates, it is an error in Montucla to afcribe the *invention* of that method to him, becaufe the fame method was, about a hundred years before, ufed by Ferrari and Cardan, and for the very fame purpofe, viz. for the refolution of biquadratic equations.

Montucla employs feveral pages in obloquy and declamation againft Wallis, for having defended the Englifh algebraifts, perhaps too harfhly in regard to Defcartes, and in expreffions tending to deprefs the merits and inventions of Harriot.

After all that has been faid on both fides, it is probable that the truth may in this cafe, as in many other controverfies, lie in the medium; and that, while Wallis deprives Defcartes of fome fhare of real merit, Montucla deprives Harriot of a great deal of *his*. It has often occurred to us, that both Wallis and Montucla, in this controverfy, have miftaken the true fcope and defign of Defcartes' work. Both of them fpeak of that work, as of a treatife on algebra; confidering the methods and rules mentioned in it, as intended by Defcartes to be underftood as his own inventions in that fcience. But, in fact, the work is a Treatife on *Geometry*, and it is fo called by Defcartes himfelf; it being, indeed, the application of algebra to geometry. In that application, he takes up algebra as he finds it, and makes his own ufe of it, in applying it to geometry. Hence it is, that he ought not to be accufed

by Wallis of arrogating to himself the discoveries and inventions of Harriot, because he makes use of them and mentions them; nor ought such discoveries to be ascribed to him as the inventor, by Montucla, since he barely announces them as lemmata, or things already known, of which he is going to make his own use, for the purpose of improving and extending the science of geometry.

Our sentiments in this case agree with those of our countryman Dr. Hutton, delivered in his Mathematical and Philosophical Dictionary, under the article *Algebra*; where he has treated very particularly of the merits and discoveries of every algebraist in regular order; and, at the end of the examination of the contents of every author's book, has given a list of the character, manner, improvements, and discoveries, of each. With regard to Harriot, he thus speaks:

"It appears that Harriot's inventions, peculiarities, and improvements, in algebra, may be comprehended in the following particulars.

"1. He introduced the uniform use of the small letters, *a*, *b*, *c*, *d*, &c. viz. the vowels *a*, *e*, &c. for unknown quantities, and the consonants *b*, *c*, *d*, *f*, &c. for the known ones; which he joins together like the letters of a word, to represent the multiplication or product of any number of these literal quantities; prefixing the numeral coefficient as we do at present, except only separated by a point, thus 5.*bbc*. For a root, he set the index of the root after the mark √; as √3) for the cube root. He also introduced the characters > and <, for greater and less; and in the reduction of equations, he arranged the operations in separate steps or lines, setting the explanations in the margin on the left hand, for each line. By which, and other means, he may be considered as the introducer of the modern state of algebra, which quite changed its form under his hands.

"2. He shewed the universal generation of all the compound or affected equations, by the continual multiplication of so many simple ones, or binomial roots; thereby plainly exhibiting to the eye the whole circumstances of the nature, mystery, and number, of the roots of equations; with the composition and relations of the coefficients of the terms; and from which many of the most important properties have since been deduced.

"3. He greatly improved the numeral exegesis, or extraction of the roots of all equations, by clear and explicit rules and methods, drawn from the foregoing generation or composition of affected equations of all degrees."

The recapitulation of Descartes' work is thus given by Dr. Hutton:

"His work is not algebra itself, but the application of al-

gebra to geometry, and the algebraical doctrine of curve lines, expressing and explaining their nature by algebraical equations; and, on the contrary, constructing and explaining equations by means of the curve lines."—His real improvements and inventions are these.

"1. Of his improvements.—That he might fit equations the better for their application in the construction of problems, Descartes mentions, as it were by-the-bye, many things concerning the nature and reduction of equations, without troubling himself about the first inventors of them; stating them in his own terms and manner, which is commonly more clear and explicit, and often with improvements of his own. And under this head we find that he chiefly followed Cardan, Vieta, and Harriot, but especially the last; and explains some of their rules and discoveries more distinctly, and varies but a little in the notation; putting the first letters of the alphabet for the known, and the latter letters for the unknown quantities; also x^3 for *aaa*, &c.; and ∝ for $=$. But Herigone used the numeral exponents in the same manner some years before. Descartes explained or improved most parts of the reductions of equations, in their various transmutations, the number and nature of their roots, true and false, real and what he calls imaginary, called involved by Girard; and the depression of equations to lower degrees.

"2. As to his inventions and discoveries in algebra, they may be comprised in these particulars; namely, the application of algebra to the geometry of curve lines, the constructing equations of the higher orders, and a rule for resolving biquadratic equations by means of a cubic and two quadratics."

This method of statement is very clear and satisfactory, exhibiting the comparative merits of each author in one view.

Other instances of Montucla's national partiality might be given, besides those which we have mentioned. We have also observed several inaccuracies in the execution of this edition of his history, with regard to dates and names of persons. Upon the whole, however, this is a very great and extraordinary performance; and we look with anxious expectation for the delivery of the third and fourth volumes, to complete the work.

We have ventured to hint, that perhaps some improvement might be made in the manner and form of this history. It is also, perhaps, too diffuse and inflated by details and declamation. It therefore appears to us, that a judicious abridgment of the whole, in two or three octavo volumes, in English, would be an acceptable and useful work.

Annales de Chymie. Vol. XXV. XXVI. et XXVII.

Annals of Chemiſtry. *(Continued from XXVII. p. 530, New Arrangement.)*

THE firſt article in the twenty-fifth volume of this work, continued with a reputation ſcarcely tarniſhed, is by M. Guyton, on ſome of the properties of platina. The object of the memoir is to diffuſe more generally the knowledge of the properties of this metal, and to aſſiſt manufacturers in their management of it. They have already ſucceeded in making chemical veſſels, diſtinguiſhed by the indeſtructibility of the metal, and have produced ſome, for other uſes, leſs elegant. The denſity of the pureſt platina is twenty-four; and, in tenacity, it comes next after copper, which, in this reſpect, is little inferior to gold. Silver follows platina. In point of adheſion to mercury, platina ſtands between biſmuth and zinc; and it amalgamates with mercury when heated. In that ſtate it is inclined to change to an oxyd; and, when in a red heat, it is oxydated on its ſurface by the oxygenated muriat of pot-aſh; but the ſalt is ſoon carried off by evaporation, and the effect is tranſitory.

M. Vauquelin's memoir on the chrôme, a metal found in the red lead of Siberia, follows. This metal is ſeemingly new: it differs from uranite, in becoming an acid, and uniting in that ſtate with alkalis; from the titanite, in not combining with acids, while the tungſten becomes yellow in acids without being diſſolved, and affords, with alkalis, white cryſtalliſable ſalts. We ſhall add the principal facts aſcertained in this memoir, with a deſcription of the metal from a ſubſequent one. The new acid was ſeparated from the red lead, on its being boiled with carbonat of pot-aſh. It joins with the alkali, forming an orange-coloured ſalt, which, with the nitrat of mercury, threw down a red precipitate, and, with the nitrat of copper, a ſediment of a mulberry red. The acid itſelf, expoſed to the light, is green, as well as by the mixture of a ſolution of tin, and various other metals. To borax, glaſs, and the microcoſmic ſalt, it communicates an emerald green colour. From thus forming different colours, with almoſt every kind of addition, the denomination of chrôme (colour), was aſſigned to it; and it has ſince been found, that it is the ſource of the colour of the ruby, perhaps of the emerald. The metal itſelf is of a greyiſh white, brittle, infuſible, cryſtalliſing in the form of needles. Expoſed to the blow-pipe, it is covered with a lilac cruſt, which, on cooling, becomes green. With borax it does not melt; but a part of it, after being oxydated, is diſſolved in this ſalt, and communicates a beautiful green colour. Acids in general

attack this metal very weakly: the nitrous only occasions a remarkable change; and of this concentrated acid, twenty parts unite to one of the metal. The salt may be converted into an orange-coloured powder, verging on green; in reality, into the same state in which it is originally found.

M. Adet, in his essay on the juice of the ananas, proves that, like many other fruits, it contains both the citric and the malic acid.

M. Hoppensack's observations on the mines of Spain are translated from a German journal. Spain was the Peru of antiquity; but its mines of silver are neglected for the richer minerals of Mexico; and, of the gold mines, scarcely any traces remain. The mountains of this country are rich in metals, and, with a more numerous and active population, might be highly productive: they now yield copper, tin, lead, iron, antimony, cobalt, rock-salt, coal, sulphur, &c. Near Almaden is found an ore of cinnabar, from which, since 1524, 1,500,000 quintals of mercury have been procured. At present the annual produce exceeds 20,000 quintals.

Passing over M. Scherer's letters, containing the chemical news of Great-Britain in 1797, we proceed to observe, that M. Fourcroy's report of the colours of Dihl's porcelain, gives a very advantageous account of that manufacturer's success. His colours are indestructible by fire, and long preserve their brilliancy. His discoveries, which are kept secret, must, when known, be highly useful to enamellers.

Count Muschin-Puschin describes, in his letter to M. Crell, his method of purifying phosphorus; which is effected by aqua regia. This menstruum brings discoloured phosphorus to resemble white wax. The colouring matter is carbon.

M. Link, professor of philosophy in the university of Rostock, has communicated his 'Reflexións on the fluidity, solidity, and solution of bodies.' They are an abstract of his physical and chemical memoirs, published between the years 1794 and 1797, and of his introduction to chemistry. They appear to be ingenious, but are in a great measure hypothetical. The leading principle is that of M. de Luc's fluide déferent, &c. to which we formerly offered some objections. The hypothesis, in its present form, is more palatable.

M. Guyton describes the cooling vessels, or alcazaras of Spain. These are the porous vessels so much used in India. They do not appear to be formed of peculiar materials. With the clay, there must be a large proportion of sand, and the vessel must not be baked in a strong fire.

The extract from Crell's chemical annals furnishes nothing very interesting. M. de Muschin-Puschin has obtained a true mercurial soap, by triturating three parts of caustic volatile alkali with one part of a soap obtained by a solution of nitrat

of mercury. M. Tyschen shows that the light of phosphorescent woods is only in a small degree diminished by their being placed in water. During their phosphorescence, they consume some air, and develope an acid like phosphorus: they are also affected by hydrogenous and carbonic acid gas, like the same substance. M. Ostman has revived the old opinion that basaltes is of igneous origin, by finding some prismatic crystallisations in the fire-place of a furnace.

M. Proust's memoir on the tannin (the tanning principle), is valuable; and the extract is full of very important facts. A solution of muriate of tin, added to a decoction of galls, throws down a considerable quantity of a yellowish precipitate. Water must be copiously added to separate the whole of the precipitate that may be combined with the acid. This precipitate, when filtered, contains the tannin, with the oxyd of tin. The latter is precipitated by sulphurated hydrogenous gas, when the whole has been diluted with water; and the tannin remains dissolved. It has then the colour and smell of a decoction of galls: the taste is austere and bitter, without being very disagreeable. It lathers like a solution of soap, without being unctuous to the touch. By cooling, it deposits a powder of a clear brown colour, which is re-dissolved by heat. All the acids separate the tannin from its watery solution by uniting with it; and the solution of tannin, in water, added to a solution of isinglass, throws down a mucilaginous substance possessing the elasticity of gluten of farina. Albuminous liquors are separated by the solution of tannin; but this does not form a magma susceptible of contraction, which in reality constitutes the change that takes place in tanned leather. The green sulphat of iron is not more changed by the tannin than by the gallic acid; the red sulphat is precipitated of a blue colour, which becomes black in drying: the precipitate, with the gallic acid, is more black, and more readily suspended by water. The gallate of iron is soluble in acids, the tannate decomposed by them. In black dyes, M. Proust remarks, that a portion of the black, whether obtained by the gallic or by the tannic acid, is destroyed by oxydation. He adds, that, in the operation, there is a period when the bath gives no farther black colour, or gives to the iron a quantity of oxygen necessary to render it of a red colour; and that dyers would accelerate their process by employing the red sulphat. Logwood and verdegris are, he thinks, useless.

M. Berthollet's memoir on the sulphurated hydrogen, is minute and important. We should offer a fuller account of some of the principal conclusions, if they were not so closely connected with chemical processes, as to prevent their being easily understood. It is well known that sulphurated hydrogen is produced by dissolving an alkaline sulphur in water, thus

obtaining its hydrogen from the decomposition of the water; but, when the sulphur finds hydrogen in any other substance, the hydro-sulphur is produced without the assistance of water. Thus the hydrogenous sulphur of ammonia is formed, which assumes a yellow colour by the slightest contact of oxygen; but these always preserve a proportion of sulphurated hydrogen, which those produced by the decomposition of water seldom retain. Metals and oxyds of metals thus form hydro-sulphurs and hydrogenous sulphurs: thus the cinnabar is a sulphur of mercury, and black Æthiops an hydrogenous sulphur. The phosphorated hydrogenous gas greatly resembles the sulphurated hydrogen; but it has not the properties of an acid, and is not wholly soluble in water. The sulphurated hydrogen discovers every particle of a metal in solution, except arsenic; and, in this way, it is highly useful as a liquor probatorius, and as a re-agent; for, when the soluble parts of any mineral are dissolved by an acid, the earths and the metallic portions may be separately precipitated. A table, showing the colours of the different metals thus precipitated, is subjoined.

M. Klaproth's account of the new metal, called tellurium, next occurs. It is found in an ore of an equivocal nature and appearance, which is dug, we believe exclusively, so far as is yet known, in Transylvania, and is called white gold. The proportion of tellurium, in this ore, is very considerable; in one mine it exceeds ninety-two. Some gold is generally found with it. In colour, the tellurium resembles tin, with the grey hue of the lead; its fracture is lamellated; its specific gravity is 6.115; its metallic splendor is considerable; it is highly fusible, and burns with a blue flame, greenish at the edges. It is wholly dissipated by heat, in a whitish grey smoke, with the disagreeable smell of radishes; and, if the inflammation is checked, the remaining button preserves, for a long time, its fluidity. It is precipitated by antimony, and therefore cannot be, as some have supposed, that metal in disguise. Its oxyd resembles a white powder, and is soluble in the muriatic acid. The metal dissolves more easily in the nitrous and nitro-muriatic acids, than in concentrated vitriolic acid.

M. Fabroni's memoir on the purple violet colour, drawn from the leaves of aloes, promises an important addition to the materials of the dyer. It is an ingenious and a just remark, that the brilliant colour of the flowers generally exists, *materially*, in the plant, and requires only to be elicited by chemical agents. The leaves of aloes exposed to oxygenous gas, with or without light, form a beautiful purple violet. So far we can go safely with our author; but we cannot follow him with equal confidence, when he presumes that this co-

lour will not fade by the continued action of these powers, because it is drawn out by them. Should, however, his opinion be true, the colour will be truly valuable. M. Guyton has succeeded equally in extracting the same colour from the juice of aloes; and he adds, that, with acid of tungsten, it forms a very durable lac.

M. Chaptal, in two memoirs, explains the process of making verdegris and the crystals of copper. The former is produced from the magma which remains after all the fluid has been pressed from the grapes. It is what, in cider countries, is called the *mock*; and it might be used with some advantage in the same way. The *marc*, or *mock*, must be fermented before it is applied to the copper; and the oxyd is produced, not only by the carbonic acid, but, we believe, by some acetous æther formed in the process. It is certainly very different from any oxyd produced by fire, however regulated. The crystals of copper are formed by a dissolution of the verdegris in vinegar.

In our account of the contents of this volume, we have neither noticed the translations and abstracts from the works of the English chemists, nor the new books. We shall continue to omit each class, as less interesting.

The twenty-sixth volume commences with a valuable memoir on areömetry, continued in another part of the volume by M. Hassenfratz. Our readers may remember that we explained this new term, as that branch of science which, by a new method, investigates the specific gravities of bodies. The first part of the writer's plan is to explain the general theory of the comparison of the weights of bodies with their bulk; a theory necessary for understanding the use and construction of the instruments which he intends to describe. At the end is added a table of weights, in grammes of cubic feet of distilled water, and of the mean measures of fluids among different nations, to connect them with those which he employs. This memoir is concluded with a description of the author's new instrument, designed to ascertain the weight of solids, compared with that of water. In the second memoir, M. Hassenfratz treats of the areömeter, describing those hitherto known, and examining particularly the construction of a new instrument calculated for the same purpose. We cannot, for various reasons, follow our author's minute detail; but we recommend these memoirs as highly ingenious, philosophical, and accurate.

M. Bouillon de la Grange describes, perhaps too tediously, the method of making blanc d'Espagne—what we call flake white. It is a pure calcareous earth, ground very fine, without the mixture of any ferrugineous or siliceous particles.

The fossils found by prince Gallitzin, in the neighbourhood

of Aschaffenburg, are an ore of iron mixed with some titanite, and a mineral containing oxyds of titanite and manganese. The first showed some polarity, but it was not magnetic.

M. Berthollet describes the zoonic acid (the peculiar acid of animal substances), and the method of preparing it. We will state the few properties which he has mentioned. Its smell resembles that of meat fried; in reality, it is then formed or separated. Its taste is austere. It effervesces with alkaline carbonats, but does not seem to form crystallisable salts. It forms a white precipitate, with a solution of acetite of mercury, and with nitrat of lead. It acts on the nitrat of silver by a more complex affinity; for the precipitate grows brown, which shows that it contains hydrogen. The zoonate of pot-ash does not form prussiate of iron with a solution of that metal. The fluid produced by putrefying flesh is an ammoniacal salt, with an excess of acid.

M. Trommsdorf (professor of chemistry at Erfort) writes to Van Mons, communicating various chemical remarks. One of his pupils found that some of the neutral salts attacked tin, but none seemed to dissolve it, except the ammoniacal. The affinities of titanite are, according to his experiments, in the following order—the acids of galls, phosphorus, wood sorrel, sulphur, sea salt, nitre, and vinegar.

The short abstract from the thirteenth volume of the Annali di Chimica of Brugnatelli, will afford us some remarks at least of curiosity, if not of considerable importance. M. Carradori has described, with accuracy, the lampyris Italica, the fire-fly, though without greatly adding to our knowledge on this subject. The phosphorescent matter is contained in the cells of the abdomen, between the rings, and it shines while in a moist state; but the appearance and disappearance of the light, considered as voluntary, depend on the animal's power of opening and closing the cells. When separated from the body, it shines, in consequence of its continuing moist. A slight compression prevents the fly from closing the cells. The phosphorescent parts, placed in oil, shine feebly; in water, they are as bright as in air, and shine for a longer time: they shine too in the Torricellian vacuum; and if the light is brighter in oxygenous gas than in air, our author attributes it to the greater spirit and activity of the animal. Of other fluids, the effects on the fire-fly are the same as on other phosphorescent animals. Our author thinks (and it is highly probable) that in these instances the luminous matter is separated by the glands from the food of the animal. The fire-fly undoubtedly prevails in countries where an unclouded sky admits the free action of light on every substance; and this seems a singular instance of the separation of the lumi-

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nous fluid, if not pure, yet united with a fluid to which it has little affinity.

Fabroni's discourse on encaustic paintings, in the same collection, deserves attention. He concludes that the Egyptians were acquainted with this practice; and, from a fragment of a mummy, preserved in the Museum at Florence, he thinks the practice at least 2000 years old. Wax forms the white part of the picture, and is less destructible by time than oil or whatever can be substituted. It is clear that the white of the Egyptian paintings was not a metallic oxyd; and that, except the colouring substance, there was nothing but wax in the encaustic paintings. Some of our author's trials support the utility of wax in this respect.

Brugnatelli's observations on some particular modifications of light, relate only to the different states of light as chemically combined; aggregated but concealed; and aggregated in a sensible state.

We afterwards find an analysis of the chrysolithe of jewellers, by M. Vauquelin. Instead of a precious stone, he found it to be only a phosphat of lime; and M. Hauy, from an examination of the forms of the crystals, confirms this opinion.

M. Vauquelin also analysed the aigue marine, or beryl, at the request of M. Hauy, who found a great conformity between its crystals and those of the emerald. This disquisition ended in the discovery of a new earth, the *glycine*, so denominated from the sweetness of its salts. The emerald, as was afterwards discovered, contains the same earth, in nearly the same proportion, viz. 16; and, as we supposed, it appears to owe its colour to chrome. The glycine is a soft white earth, resembling alumine: like this substance, it is soluble in caustic pot-ash; but differs from it in having a greater attraction to the nitric, and even the sulphuric acid. We shall add our author's account of its properties. The earth is insipid, adhering to the tongue, soluble in fixed alkalis, in carbonate of ammoniac, and in every acid except the carbonic and phosphoric; insoluble in ammonia pura; fusible in borax, forming, with this salt, a transparent glass, absorbing one-fourth of its weight of carbonic acid; decomposing aluminous salts, and not precipitated by well saturated hydrosulphurs. Its salts are sweet and slightly astringent; the earth is soluble in excess in sulphuric acid, completely precipitated from its solutions by pure ammonia; and, in its affinity to acids, it stands between magnesia and alumine.

M. Chaptal enforces the necessity, and instructs the French in the method, of cultivating barilla. The Spaniards, their good allies, would not gratify them with the seed of the salsola, and supplied them only with an inferior sort of barilla,

unfit for the glass-manufacturer, the soap-maker, or the dyer. The few and limited experiments which have yet been made on the cultivation of the salsola have answered well.

The liquid styrax of the shops is often adulterated, and on that account its merits are suspicious. M. Bouillon de la Grange investigates the chemical properties of this substance with great care, and instructs us in its pharmaceutical management. On the natural history, he adds nothing to what Petiver communicated. When pure, it is of a deep red; has an agreeable smell, resembling that of balsam of Peru, and leaves on the tongue a pungent taste, with evident marks of acidity. On examination, it appears to be a resinous balsam, analogous to benzoin, composed of the benzoic acid and a resin. It is best purified by a solution in alcohol, which may be separated by distillation. In its pharmaceutical treatment, too great heat should be avoided, as the acid is very volatile.

M. Chaptal's observations on the epidermis follow. This substance differs greatly from the true skin, in not being softened or dissolved by water or alcohol. It yields, however, to caustic alkali, or lime; and, on this account, in tanning, the epidermis is first removed by lime-water, that the tan may penetrate on each surface, as the epidermis would otherwise prevent its action on one side.

M. Guyton's pyrometrical essays are intended to ascertain how far carbon is a non-conductor of heat. It appears, in general, that bodies, surrounded by charcoal, receive only two-thirds of the heat experienced by those which are surrounded by powdered quartz; that metals, which melt at a degree of heat beyond 130°, cannot be worked in contact with charcoal; and that the pyrometers of Wedgwood are only accurate measures of heat, when in contact with substances similar to those which surround the body, whose heat is required.

M. Fourcroy's remarks on the spiritus rector of Boerhaave, the aroma of chemists, are designed to show that no such particular principle exists. What has been styled such, consists of the essential parts of the vegetable in a gaseous form, or dissolved in atmospheric air. All substances, even metallic ones, when rubbed, fly off, and strike the nostrils with their peculiar odor. Our author divides these reputed aromas into, 1. the odorous extractive or mucous; examples of which are the borage, lettuce, and plantain; 2. the lighter oily, as jasmin, jonquil, &c.; 3. aromatic oily, as the labiated plants; 4. aromatic acid, as storax, balsam of Peru, &c.; 5. hydrosulphureous, as onions, scurvy-grass, &c.

M. Chaptal's chemical considerations on the effects of mordants, in dying cottons of a red colour, like all the other

memoirs of this chemist, are truly instructive. The principal component part of the mordant is a salt of iron; and this alone may be employed to produce many beautiful browns; but, in the vivid red of Adrianople, the mordant consists of three principles—oil, the astringent principle from galls, and alum. In another memoir, on the oxyd of iron, M. Chaptal shows how the browns of different shades may be produced by oxyd of iron only, enlivened in various ways. The acid, employed for this purpose, is kept secret; but the general preference is for the acetous, though all the mineral acids are occasionally employed. A solution of sulphat of iron, enlivened by immersion in sulphat of alumine, imitates very successfully the colour of nankins, and renders them, in his opinion, greatly superior to the English: indeed the error of our imitations of the Chinese manufacture is giving them a too brilliant yellow. With madder, the same oxyd produces a beautiful violet; but, as a mordant, the cotton must first be impregnated with oil and the astringent principle, as for the red of Adrianople. The best way of making this colour uniform, is to wash the cotton when it comes from the oxyd, and to madder it while wet. Astringent vegetables afford a muddy hue, which becomes brighter when the astringent principle is weakened; but this renders the colour less solid. It is, however, easy to unite these colouring principles, so as to join beauty with solidity: thus the green oak unites advantageously with luteola, and the sumach with quercitron.

M. Vauquelin, in the emerald of Peru, found, as in the beryl, the glycine and the oxyd of chrome. In general, the glycine seems to have been mistaken for alumine, and the chrome has been probably confounded with lime.

An inquiry into the origin of the gas, produced by the passage of watery vapour through red-hot tubes, by Deiman, Paets, &c. is the last memoir of importance in the volume. Wiegleb, in Crell's Annals, had endeavoured to show, that the gas, produced in this way, arose from the combination of the matter of heat with the watery vapour; in other words, that this last, joined with caloric, became azotic gas. Our authors, on the contrary, have proved, that the azote proceeds from the penetration of the atmospheric air through the tubes, and the destruction of its oxygen by the heat. This, however, had been clearly shown in former publications.

In the twenty-seventh volume, M. Vauquelin informs us, that the colour of the Bohemian ruby (rubis spinellus) depends on the acid of chrome. It appeared to us unreasonable, that all the colours of precious stones should have been supposed to be produced by iron—colours which this metal can in no case be made to assume in our hands; and it may appear particularly strange, that both red and green should be occasioned by

the ſame metal. In fact, the new metal ſhould have been called the chamæleon; for, when highly oxydated, it is acid and red; when leſs ſo, it is a metallic oxyd of a green colour. In this inſtance, the chrome ſeems to have been miſtaken for flint, of which the Bohemian ruby does not contain an atom. Its proportion of alumine is very large, and it contains ſome magneſia. M. Vauquelin properly calls it a chromat of alumine and magneſia.

The ſecond memoir of M. Bouillon de la Grange, on the ſaline and earthy ſalts of camphor, follows. It conſiſts of many detached facts, of which even the general reſults would form an extenſive article. One great point is aſcertained, viz. that the camphorated is very different from the benzoic acid.

M. Batſch's ſyllabus of his lectures, entitled A view of the characters neceſſary in the claſſification of minerals, followed by a ſhort table of geology, is abridged by M. Taſſaert. M. Batſch, in his arrangement, inconſiſtently mingles the external with the chemical characters. Some obſervations on the ſurface of the moon are ſubjoined. After a careful examination of this abſtract, we do not find ſufficient novelty or ingenuity to induce us to give a fuller account of it.

M. Welther's apparatus for ſaturating fixed alkalis with carbonic acid cannot well be abridged; and the correſpondence between Meſs. Humbolt and Fourcroy, reſpecting ſome criticiſms of the latter, is not particularly intereſting.

The obſervations of Brugnatelli, on the method of producing fulmination, with different bodies joined with phoſphorus, by means of trituration or percuſſion, are curious. The majority of metallic nitrats fulminate with phoſphorus. Nitre itſelf does the ſame by percuſſion. The ſulphuric and muriatic ſalts produce no detonation, except when they are oxygenated; the oxygenated muriat of pot-aſh, of ſilver, and of mercury, fulminate with phoſphorus. Some metallic oxyds, as the yellow and grey oxyds of mercury and mangancſe, produce a ſimilar effect. At a higher temperature, carbon will ſupply the place of phoſphorus. Van Mons limits Brugnatelli's concluſions, on repeating ſome of his experiments, particularly the detonations of the metallic oxyds with phoſphorus, which he confines to manganeſe.

An anonymous correſpondent gives an account of the ſudden death of turkeys, &c. by drinking water in which phoſphorus had been waſhed.

The new ſtandard for works in gold and ſilver is explained by M. Guyton; and M. Euſèbe Salverte attributes the invention of the areömeter to Archimedes. The honour has lately been given to Hypathia, a female Platoniſt, who was murdered at the inſtigation of St. Cyril, early in the fifth century. It is, however, deſcribed very clearly in the poem de Ponde-

ribus et Mensuris, attributed to Rhemnius, who lived in the reign of Caligula, three centuries before Hypathia. The third memoir of M. Hassenfratz, on the areömeter, relates to the salinograde, the instrument for measuring the quantity of salt dissolved in water.

Humbolt's memoir on the ternary combination of phosphorus with azotic gas and oxygen, is interesting. He shows that many substances, even metallic ones, may be combined with gaseous fluids, and rise in the atmosphere Of the same kind is the combination which is the subject of the present paper. In examining the different states of atmospheric air, he found that, after its decomposition by phosphorus, the azote contains a portion of oxygen, with difficulty separated. In general, he found phosphorus a very uncertain criterion of the purity of the air; for nitrous gas always discovers some hundred parts of oxygen, left by the phosphorus; but even this gas does not separate all the oxygen. Phosphorus is found to dissolve equally in azote and oxygen gas, and to form an union which nitrous gas only decomposes in part.

M. Wurzer writes to Van Mons, remarking an extraordinary production of azotic gas, on dropping water upon heated copper. He supposes the water to be changed to azotic gas. Van Mons, who repeated the experiment, finds a different result, and therefore suspects that in Wurzer's experiments the lutes were not well secured.

M. Fourcroy has examined the experiments of Dr. Pearson on urinary calculi. The point on which he differs from the English chemist is, whether one of the ingredients in those calculi be an animal oxyd, or a particular acid. Having formerly given a place in this journal to the chief arguments of the contending parties on this intricate subject, we may now offer a summary opinion; and we have no doubt in saying, that we think Dr. Pearson's opinion (that it is an animal oxyd) well founded.

M. Adet's memoir on the acetic acid follows. His experiments seem to show, that no such substance as the acetous acid exists; for, in every instance, it has its full proportion of oxygen, and is acetic acid. When separated from copper, it only contains less water; and, if there is any acid resembling the acetous, it is the acid of tartar and of apples, becoming, by the absorption of more oxygen, the acetic acid.

M. Gadolin announces a course of experiments, to prove the precipitation of flint by means of lime; which M. Guyton thinks, on the whole, highly probable. M. Guyton replies also to an experiment of M. Wiegleb, who is still anxious to restore the fallen cause of phlogiston. These are the last articles of importance in the twenty-seventh volume.

Leçons d'Histoire prononcées a l'Ecole Normale en l'An 3 de la République Française, &c. Par C. F. Volney. 8vo. Paris. 1800.

Lessons of History, delivered at the Normal School in the 3d Year of the French Republic. By C. F. Volney, Member of the Institute. Imported by De Boffe.

IN the advertisement prefixed, the author offers a sort of apology for publishing this work in its original rapid style of execution. Yet the subject is of such importance, that any apology for treating it in a rash and superficial manner cannot be admitted. Volney himself allows, 'that from history are derived almost all our religious opinions . . . . . and the greater part of the political maxims and principles which direct governments, overturn them, or consolidate them.' When he proceeds to observe that many erroneous ideas and measures originate from the study of ancient history, or rather from a slight acquaintance with it, he is doubtless in the right; and we observed with pleasure, in the progress of the work, some severe sarcasms against the French affectation of Roman and Spartan customs, which Volney justly considers as equally fanatic and absurd with the biblical language and manners of the puritans in the last century. Neither the English nor the French are Jews, Romans, or Carthaginians; and the affectation of a duplicate character, though it may excite enthusiasm, and even lend a momentary force, resembling that of phrensy, never fails, like affectation in an individual, to injure the inborn character, and to lead to dangerous absurdities in conduct, the more to be avoided, as the ridicule of future ages will be the infallible consequence. Fancy delights in resemblances, judgement in discriminations; and certainly never a nation existed more unlike the Romans or Spartans than the modern French; nor do we intend any national reflection, as the Romans began by being thieves, and the Spartans always continued so.

We cannot readily assent to the following opinions.

'I should believe that I had rendered an eminent service, if my work could shake the *respect for history* which has become a dogma in the system of European education; if this book, becoming the *preliminary advice, the universal preface* of all histories, should forewarn readers against the empiricism of writers, and against their own illusions; if it should induce every narrating man to submit to strict interrogatories respecting his means of information, and the first source of his hearsays; if it should habituate every one to account to himself for his motives of belief, and question himself,

'1. Whether, since we have so much habitual carelessness in verifying facts,—and, when we undertake this task, find so many difficulties—it be reasonable to exact from another more diligence and success than from ourselves:

'2. Whether, since we have such false and imperfect notions of that which passes under our eyes, we can expect to be better informed of that which passed, or is passing, at great distances of time or place:

'3. Whether, since we have more than one recent example of equivocal or false allegations, sent down to posterity with all the passports of truth, we can hope that men of former ages had less boldness or more conscience:

'4. Whether, since, in the midst of faction, each party threatens the historian who shall write any thing to injure it, posterity, or the present age, have a right to exact a sacrifice, which would gain no other reward than the character of imprudence, or the barren honour of funeral pomp:

'5. Whether, since it would be imprudent, and almost impossible, for every general to write an account of his own campaigns, for every diplomatic character to publish his negotiations, or every public man his memoirs, before actors and witnesses who could give him the lie, or accomplish his ruin, posterity can expect, that when these actors and witnesses, being dead, can no longer appeal, self-love, animosity, shame, distance of time, and defect of memory, should transmit strict truth:

'6. Whether the pretended information and impartiality attributed to posterity be not the fallacious consolation of innocence, or the flattery of seduction or fear:

'7. Whether it be not true that posterity often receive and consecrate the depositions of the strong survivor, who stifles the appeal of the wretch that is crushed:

'8. And whether, in a moral view, it is not as ridiculous to pretend that facts will appear more evident when they become old, as in physics to maintain, that objects are more distinct on account of their distance.'

To these sagacious questions we may reply,

1. That an historian of course employs the utmost care in verifying facts, which cannot be expected from the common herd:

2. That facts which have happened in distant times and places are verified by a comparison of written relations, and of course may be examined with more strictness and accuracy than the idle reports of the day:

3. That, though falsehoods have been propagated by party, yet party expires with time; and impartial authors arise, who elicit the truth from discordant relations:

4. That the historian writes in his cabinet, and parties cannot be incensed with what does not come to their knowledge:

5. That most generals would give very false accounts of their own campaigns, and most public and diplomatic men would recount their own transactions without a strict regard to truth. Even if they published their own accounts, a candid historian wonld only compare them with those of others:

6. That the impartiality ascribed to posterity is not ideal, because parties are not eternal. The same answer may be applied to the seventh remark.

In the eighth and last observation, Volney falls into the very error which he blames in nations, that of using absurd comparisons; for a distant prospect has not the smallest connexion with history, which depends solely upon abundance and exactness of materials and information, that can only arise in the course of years. The works of man are wholly unlike those of nature, but may be compared among themselves. If our author compared history with landscape-painting, for instance, he must have reflected, that if the proper colours be not at hand, the artist must wait till they can be procured.

In his Travels in Egypt and Syria, Volney gave proof of a philosophical and observing mind, which, though in some instances erroneous and eccentric, seemed capable of the high praise of forming general and extensive views. In his first work the reader was surprised with the eccentric notion that the ancient Egyptians were negroes, and, in his work styled the *Ruins*, with an equally eccentric notion that Jesus Christ was a mythologic being. History, which requires the utmost solidity of judgement and accuracy of discernment, might, perhaps, consider the intrusion of so fanciful an author, capable of sporting with the most notorious facts, as a profanation of her temple. Nor shall we deny, that, accustomed as we are to the calm dignity and philosophic discussion of Gibbon, Hume, and Robertson, the malapert discussions of the present work have left no impression upon our minds, except disgust. There is, doubtless, sometimes a coruscation of genius; but, as it evidently springs from the darkness of a mind uninformed on the subject, it neither imparts lasting illumination, nor genial warmth. The greater part of the work might be examined, and answered sentence by sentence, in its own abrupt manner, and with as much rapidity as it was composed; but our present task is to offer only a few remarks and extracts.

Some of the ardent minds which excited the revolution in France, imagined that they could extinguish the deity by a fiat. After this notable *deicide* (to speak in their own manner) they aspired, some to omnipotence, and others to omniscience. The latter, in particular, wished to extinguish every previous ray

of knowledge, as being interwoven with prejudice, and to establish new systems of science, bursting in pure emanations from their own bosoms. The wisdom of ages, or even of experience, became a jest; and, to speak comparatively, the light of the sun was to be extinguished, and his place supplied by patent lamps; while the ancient sages, who were styled philosophers by the people and by posterity, were remarkable for patience, modesty, humility, and a compliance with the social usages of their fellow-men, and, in a scientific point of view, were eager to applaud the former instructors of nations, and rather to magnify than diminish the advantages of ancient science. The new philosophers, chiefly so styled among themselves, may be often described by characters completely the reverse. Their intoxication of self-love, which considers France as the first of all countries, and a philosopher of the new school as the first of all Frenchmen, has led to a peculiar petulance of style, and assumption of illumination, which shock the sedate mind, accustomed to laborious investigation and slow decision. If classical and mathematical education be attended with no other advantage, it must continue to be highly prized for the additional and strengthening fibres which it imparts to the mind. Confidence and arrogance are overwhelmed by constant communication with superior exertions; and the soul becomes gradually inured to the severity of truth.

These reflexions have been naturally suggested by a work which attacks almost every historical maxim that has been revered by youth or esteemed by age. We will now be more particular. Volney (p. 15) gives a singular *trait* of his assumed omniscience, by observing that the Greeks confined the meaning of the word history to that of inquiry, and that its present acceptation is modern. Is not this in fact to say that he has never read the historians of Greece and Rome? As another specimen of solemn trifling, we would select the following observation (p. 471).

'Let us then establish this maxim, fertile of results in the study of history;

'That one may calculate with a sort of justness the degree of intelligence and civilisation of a people by the nature of its historical recitals, or, in more general terms,

'That history assumes the character of the epochs and of the times in which it has been composed.'

'Parturiunt montes; nascetur ridiculus mus.'

There needs no ghost, my lord, to come from the grave to tell us this.

If Volney had lived in the sixteenth century, he might have been a Calvinist minister, or, perhaps, a leader of the League;

and, if in the twelfth, he might have been chanting requiems. In a light flimſy ſtrain of argumentation, he obſerves (p. 54) that the family ſpirit among the ancients muſt have corrupted the authenticity of their hiſtory. A French lady, addicted to falſehood, ſaid ſhe only uſed her imagination inſtead of her memory; and certainly Volney has ſhown more imagination than knowledge, when he ſuppoſes that manuſcript hiſtories could be confined to the library of a Fabius or a Scipio, or that the Greeks and Romans could annihilate the literary productions of other nations. Polybius, it is true, lived in the houſe of Scipio Africanus; but his immortal hiſtory bears no mark even of national partiality, far leſs of the little propenſities of family; and if he ſeemed to favour his patrons, the cauſe would be underſtood, and the effect obviated in the page of hiſtory. Even amidſt their civil contentions, as they may be called, the Greeks reverenced literature; and, in the violent colliſion between the republics of Carthage and Rome, the conqueror, far from annihilating, was eager to import freſh literary ſtores, which ſeem, however, to have been very few, the Carthaginians being chiefly converſant in trade; and the books of agriculture quoted by Pliny evince the eagerneſs of the Romans to preſerve the fruits of the literary exertions of their enemies.

Volney examines in a note (p. 85) what is the cauſe of a characteriſtic difference between the diſciples of Voltaire and thoſe of Rouſſeau. The difference is, that if Voltaire be attacked, his partiſans anſwer with coolneſs and pleaſantry, while thoſe of Rouſſeau regard his opponents as wicked, and defend him with a kind of religious fury. He ſuppoſes this to ariſe from the nature of their compoſitions, thoſe of Voltaire being addreſſed to the judgement, while thoſe of Rouſſeau operate on the paſſions and affections; and he adds, that the latter had ſo firm a perſuaſion of his own rectitude, that he firſt reſpected the opinion of others, and then their intentions. 'A ſituation of mind, whence averſion inſtantly ariſes when one is weak, and a perſecuting intolerance when one is ſtrong. It is remarkable that, among thoſe who have moſt diſplayed the latter character in recent times, the greater number either were, or ſtyled themſelves, diſciples and admirers of J. J. Rouſſeau.'

In the remainder of this work, Volney perſiſts in applying to hiſtory rules totally foreign from its nature; and (in p. 140) he fairly quarrels with it, becauſe it does not admit mathematical certainty. He might as well have quarreled with his father, becauſe he was not an iſoſceles triangle. There is no connexion between the two ſciences. He applauds (p. 143) the Chineſe inſtitution of a college of hiſtorians; confounding the mere aſſemblage of facts with hiſtory, and forgetting that

one page of Tacitus would be worth whole volumes of such collections.

He blames the asperity of Mably, who was, in truth, as superficial as our author; but the subsequent apology deserves attention. 'Let us not impute his moroseness as a crime, for it was in fact his torment. One is not born an historian, but one is born gay or morose; and unhappily the cultivation of letters, a sedentary life, obstinate studies, exertions of the mind, only serve to thicken the bile, obstruct the entrails, and disorder the functions of the stomach, the immutable seats of all gaiety and of all chagrin. Men of letters are blamed, while they merit commiseration: they are reproached with passions, which, in fact, produce their talents, whose fruits are beneficial to all: they have only one fault, that of occupying themselves more with others than with their own health; and they may be reproached with having neglected the physical knowledge of their frame, of that animated machine by which they live, and having forgotten the laws of physiology and dietetics, the very fundamental sciences of our affections. Study would agree particularly to the writers of personal history, and give them a species of utility equally important and new; for, if an observer, at once a moralist and physiologist, should study the affinities which exist between the dispositions of the body and the situations of the mind; if he should examine with care on what days and at what hours he has an activity or languor of thought, warmth of sentiment, harshness or feebleness in composition, he will perceive that these phases in the mind, commonly periodical, correspond with phases of the body equally periodical, with a digestion slow or easy, good or bad, with aliments mild or acrid, stimulating or calm—of which some liquors in particular, such as wine and coffee, present striking examples—with a transpiration either checked or exuberant: in short, he will be convinced, that the action, well or ill regulated, of the bodily machine, is the powerful regulator of that of the thinking organ; that, in consequence, what is called a fault of the mind or of the character is often only a fault of the constitution or of the functions, to correct which only a proper regimen is required; and from such a task, well executed, the utility would arise, that, by showing in physical habits the cause of many virtues and vices, it would furnish us with valuable rules of conduct, applicable according to the human constitution, and would lead us to a spirit of indulgence which, in men called acrimonious and severe, would commonly show us men who are sick or weakly constituted, and who ought to seek the benefit of the mineral waters.'

Volney afterwards points out four ways in which history may be composed. First, that in order of time, which he calls

the annalistic or didactic. The reason of the latter appellation we cannot explain, but believe that the author, like many of his countrymen, uses Greek terms without understanding their strict import. In the common interpretation of *didactic*, no writing can convey a more heterogeneous idea than bare annals. Secondly, that by the connexion of facts, which he calls the dramatic or systematic: to this class he refers the history of Herodotus. Thirdly, that by the order of materials, in which he instances Goguet's book on the origin of laws, &c. and under this head he pretends to display biblical learning, while in fact he only shows an illiterate confusion of ideas. Fourthly, what he calls analytic and philosophic method, explaining all the physical and moral system of a nation, in which he modestly instances his own travels in Syria;—another incoherence of ideas; for voyages cannot be classed as history. Nor are the laws and morals of a nation solely dependent, as he imagines, upon the climate and face of the country, as the examples of modern Egypt, Persia, Greece, Rome, sufficiently evince; and it is now understood that in the first instance the education of a nation, and next its government, are the grand engines that influence its wisdom and happiness.

He more justly observes (p. 183) that languages form the chief and most authentic information concerning the origin of nations, presenting in themselves a 'complete history of each people; and their descents and analogies are the clue of Ariadne in the labyrinth of national origins.' But when he proceeds to detail his own knowledge of languages, he errs so grossly as to suppose that the German, English, Dutch, and other Gothic dialects, have the same origin as the Welsh and Armorican, totally confounding the most distinct dialects! With equal ignorance he supposes (p. 191) that the word *good* in English implies brave, rich, or noble. Could his imagination be wandering to the colloquial phrases, good soldier, good man upon the exchange, or good race-horse? It has been observed, that the general and grand views of Bacon were just even when applied to details. Volney's general views are sometimes good; but his details present shocking superficiality.

'We know not upon what authority he observes (p. 194), that relics of Carthaginian colonies have been discovered 'in the countries of Fezzan and Mourzouk;' which, we may observe, is an equivalent phrase to the countries of England and London. When he observes (p. 196) that the Anglo-Saxon language has the same syntax with the modern Persian, we may accredit his skill in the latter language; but the observation has already occurred to almost every writer on Gothic origins. In the next page he displays his inscience when he

supposes that the ancient Massagetæ are Eleutes and Mongols of our times, when in fact the former were tribes of a different origin and speech, who recoiling towards the west in the general shock of nations which accompanied the fall of the Roman empire, their country was occupied by other nomades of Tartaric origin. He justly wishes (p. 201) that further inquiry were made into the Malay idiom which is diffused over the Indian isles, and those of the Pacific Ocean.

The observations in the following extract are so just, that we must not with-hold them from our readers.

'We reproach our ancestors with a superstitious adoration of the Jews, and we have fallen into an adoration not less superstitious of the Romans and of the Greeks. Our ancestors swore by Jerusalem and the Bible, and a new sect has sworn by Sparta, Athens, and Livy. What is ridiculous in this new species of religion is, that its apostles have not themselves a just idea of the doctrine which they preach, and that the models which they have proposed to us are diametrically opposite to their declarations or to their intentions; they have vaunted to us the liberty, the spirit of equality, of Rome and Greece, and have forgotten that, in Sparta, an aristocracy of thirty thousand nobles held under a dreadful yoke two hundred thousand slaves; that, to prevent the too great population of this kind of *negroes*, the Lacedæmonian youth went out by night to hunt the Helotes like wild beasts; that at Athens, that sanctuary of all liberty, there were four enslaved heads for one free; that there was not a house where the despotic rule of our American colonies was not exercised by these pretended democrats with a cruelty worthy of those tyrants; that of about four millions of souls which peopled ancient Greece more than three millions were slaves; that the political and civil inequality of men was the dogma of the people and of the legislators; that it was consecrated by Lycurgus and Solon, professed by Aristotle and the divine Plato, by the generals and the ambassadors of Athens, of Sparta, and of Rome, who, in Polybius, in Livy, and in Thucydides, speak like the ambassadors of Attila and Genghiz-Khan. They have forgotten that, among the Romans, these same manners, this same despotism, reigned in what they call the noblest æra of the republic; that this pretended republic, diversified according to its epochs, was nevertheless always an oligarchy composed of an order of nobility and priesthood, almost exclusive masters of lands and employments, and of a plebeian mass overburthened with usury, not having four acres a head, and differing from their own slaves merely in the right of chastising them, in selling their own votes, and in going to attain decrepitude or perish beneath the rod of the centurions in the slavery of

camps and military rapines; that in these pretended states of equality and liberty all the political rights were concentred in the hands of the lazy and factious inhabitants of the metropolis, who, in the allies and associates, only beheld tributaries. Yes, the more I have studied antiquity and its governments so vaunted, the more I have conceived that those of the Mamlouks of Egypt and the dey of Algiers differ not essentially from those of Sparta and of Rome; and that nothing was wanted to these Greeks and Romans, so much extolled, but the name of Huns and Vandals, in order to retrace in our minds all the characters of the latter. Eternal wars, slaughters of prisoners, massacres of women and children, perfidies, interior factions, domestic tyranny, and foreign oppression; behold the picture of Greece and Italy during five hundred years, such as we find it in Thucydides, Polybius, and Livy. Hardly was the war (the only just and honourable war) against Xerxes finished, when the insolent vexations of Athens on the sea began; then the horrible war of Peloponnesus; then that of the Thebans; then those of Alexander and his successors; then those of the Romans, without the soul once finding itself able to repose in peace for half a generation.'

With this favourable quotation we shall close; adding only, that, though we cannot applaud the spirit and tendency of the present work, we have not forgotten the satisfaction which we received from this author's travels in the East.

Voyage de Dimo et Nicolo Stephanopoli en Grèce pendant les Annèes V. et VI. (1797 et 1798 v. st.) d'apres deux Missions, dont l'une du Gouvernement Française, et l'autre du Général en Chef Buonaparte. Rédigé par un des Professeurs du Prytanèe, avec Plans et Vues levés sur les Lieux. Paris. 1800.

Travels of Dimo and Nicolo Stephanopoli in Greece during the Years 1797 and 1798, in consequence of two Missions, one from the French Government, the other from General Buonaparte. Edited by one of the Professors of the Prytaneum, and accompanied with Plans and Views. 2 Vols. 8vo. 12s. sewed. Imported by De Boffe.

THAT the modern well-informed Grecians must be best acquainted with the situation and present state of their own islands requires no peculiar sagacity to determine. Dimo Stephanopoli (or perhaps his editor) contends that the moderns are little acquainted with those islands which are the principal objects of curiosity, or with the antiquities still existing in the countries which they visit. Mr. Hawkins, whose travels we

have reason soon to expect, may perhaps prove an exception to the imputation, as he was uncommonly diligent in investigating the different objects, and examining their situation and circumstances. The present travellers are of Grecian origin; but Dimo, the elder, was born in Corsica. His ancestors were Mainotes, inhabitants of the ancient Leuctrum, one of the southern promontories of Peloponnesus, and fled to Corsica to escape from Turkish tyranny. They retained, in this rude island, their ancient purity and simplicity, with some taste for nature and science. Dimo is said to have made some important discoveries; as that of the lemithocorton, a sea-weed which he found to be an anthelminthic, and the use of oak-bark as a substitute for galls in dyeing black. We cannot fully appreciate the merit of either discovery; but we have lately had occasion to observe, that the latter will probably fail, and we can form no very favourable expectation of the former. To procure a supply of the lemithocorton, which from the demand became scarce in Corsica, was the ostensible object of the first voyage; but Dimo proceeded only a little way. In Dalmatia, he was attacked by the Sclavonians, and with difficulty escaped to Ancona with his life. In the relation of these adventures, we do not perceive the simple style of the Mainote. If, on many occasions, the 'Redacteur' does not himself speak, we think the unaffected Arcadian strongly tinctured with French ideas and French manners. The great nation is always obtruded on our view; and frequent sneers at religion are interspersed.

Nicolo, the nephew of Dimo, is exclusively styled in the narrative Stephanopoli. In reviewing the travels of the earl of Sandwich, we remarked that, on classic ground, he had caught none of the fire of an enthusiast of classic literature; but Stephanopoli compensates for the defect of his lordship, and every spark soon blazes in a conflagration. The second mission, suggested and encouraged by Buonaparte, was directed to the Morea; but it was soon found that the Turkish power would prevent the execution of his plans. The travellers therefore went to Cerigo, the ancient Cythera, and to the southern parts of Peloponnesus, the country of the Mainotes. It may be supposed, that to expand the flame of liberty through the Grecian islands was the great design of these Græco-Corsicans; but, before we follow their steps in this attempt, we will select some circumstances relating to Cythera, which has been too often considered as a barren rock, uninteresting to the classical traveller.

At Capsagli, the only town of Cerigo, about a quarter of a league from the port, our travellers found a self-taught philosopher, who, from the ancient Greek authors, had drawn copious scientific information, and possessed some ancient manu-

scripts of value, particularly one of Plato; but he only indulged Dimo with a transitory view of it. He more unkindly refused every information respecting the remaining monuments (many of which are scarcely known) of Cerigo, particularly those of the ancient city of Scandia, covered at present by the earth.

'If our island, added the stranger, is overlooked by travellers, it is not without reason. They believe, according to an apparently well-founded tradition, that it consists only of barren rocks. This mistake arises from our anxiety to conceal the antiquities that we possess, lest we should excite their envy; but, from you, nothing shall be concealed.

'The little church, which you observe near the port, was built on the ruins of a temple which Paris raised to Venus Urania, to obtain a favourable wind. Here the perfidious guest was detained by bad weather with Helena sixteen days. This bason, this fountain, are his works. Twice at this bason did the ungrateful wife of Menelaus wash with her own hands the linen and tunics of her lover. The well, which you observe at a short distance, furnished the water necessary for his fleet. Paris was cautious of invoking Venus Aphrodite; he had lately offended her—What then is the difference, according to your ancestors, between the two goddesses of the name of Venus?—When they adored Venus Aphrodite, they only followed the dictates of nature. At the entrance of the temple they took the following oath: "I swear never to forget that I am a man, and to enjoy, with discretion, whatever nature has given to my disposal." This oath was received by the priest, and was the pledge of love and happiness. At the entrance of the temple of Venus Urania, they swore, on the contrary, to scruple nothing for the gratification of their ambition. The fortress which commands the port, was, for a long time, the asylum of these votaries. They were all bachelors, and each enjoyed, with a savage pleasure, the disturbance of another's happiness. Enemies of sensual pleasure, they were acquainted only with war, and their antagonists had no other defence than their wives or their mistresses, whom they carried off at pleasure, without resistance. This conduct at last opened their eyes. *They saw that no Divinity could authorise butchery; that they were only the instruments of some agents interested in arming one half of an armed nation against another.*

'Do you know, asked the commissary, any other particulars of Helen? The city of Troy, added the sage, ought not to have been burned. Priam only was culpable. He had seen Helena at the court of Sparta when ten years old, and, after having assigned her to the sage Menelaus, at his re-

turn constantly spoke of her beauty to the youthful Paris. The prince's imagination caught the flame, and he was unable to resist his passion. The Grecians pushed their vengeance too far; but Menelaus showed an unusual example of moderation. Full of a just resentment, he confined the faithless wife, who had dishonoured him, in a separate apartment, where he went each day with an intention of punishing her: at the sight of her charms, however, the poignard dropped from his hand, and he condemned her only, on every festival, to appear in a carriage wholly black, and to be attended by Trojan women, whose presence incessantly reproached her with the ruin of their country.'

We have selected this passage for various reasons: one is, that we have already hinted at the perpetual recurrence of French interpolations. The story of Priam having seen Helen at ten years of age, and of her charms, at that of fifty, disarming Menelaus, are idle legends, wholly inconsistent with the Trojan story, and with the best information from history, that of Herodotus. What relates to each Venus is more curious, and points out the source of an early worship and of a divinity more respectable than the paramour of Mars. This divinity is Nature herself, the muse whom Lucretius invokes, by whom

'——————— Genus omne animantum
Concipitur;'

who is equally an inhabitant of sea and land, as in each element equally proliferous. Such was the Venus of antiquity, which might be supported by various other circumstances, were this the place for such disquisitions.

To proceed from Cerigo to Peloponnesus was, though a short, a dangerous navigation; and it was thought adviseable to pass from Capsagli on the south-east to the northern point of the island. Cerigo is undoubtedly rocky, but the valleys are fruitful and afford plenty of game. Here Stephanopoli felt the power of the guardian goddess,—for, coming from a church, he met a young beauty who at once captivated him, and offered, with little ceremony, to marry him, seemingly without his having thought of marriage. Lucretia, at the age of sixteen, is a surprising young lady. She is a republican, acquainted with the victories in Italy, with the names of the French generals, a deist, almost an atheist, and in love—a warm inhabitant of Cythera. The priest had told her that honour was not safe among the French; and, having found a Frenchman, she was eager to fulfil his prophecy.

In the middle of the island is a high hill, which commands the whole, with the adjoining sea. Here our traveller found columns, inscriptions, &c. in ruins. One solitary hermit, the

'sad historian of the pensive' hill, remains. To one family the office of watching these remains, of supplying the decaying trees of the four arcades, is intrusted; the eldest son inherits the estates of the family, and is consigned to celibacy for those purposes; but, if there be only one son, he may marry. Stephanopoli is so warm an enthusiast in the cause of love, that we distrust his fidelity; and the form of the letters shows no very high antiquity. The inscription which he supposes to have stood over the portal, ΚΑΡΔΙΩΝ ΘΕΡΑΠΕΙΑ, the 'Cure of Hearts,' expresses a modern idea in modern letters. The engraving of two lovers offering the turtle-doves to Venus, who is crowning them with a myrtle wreath, is in a good style and correctly antique; but the following inscription, though less modern than that just quoted, is suspicious: Ν˜C. ΑΦ˜. Θ˜C. Κ˜ΡΑ. ΚΩ˜Ν ΚΑΙ ΠΑΝΤΟC Κ˜ΜΟΥ, which our author interprets, *Ναος Ἀφροδιτης Θεας, Κυροια Κυθερειων και παντος Κοσμου*, the temple of the goddess Venus, mistress of the Cythereans and of the whole world.—The short description of Cythera, from one of the inhabitants, appears more faithful: we will therefore translate it.

'Though a great part of Cerigo is covered with flints and rocks, it still contains much land proper for agriculture. In the spring, when the rains abound, we collect a sufficient quantity of wheat and barley for the sustenance of the inhabitants. The vines are not very numerous, but they produce an excellent, dry, generous red wine, resembling the Asciuto in the environs of Rome. Around these vines, and in the fields, are a large number of mulberry-trees, which feed the swarms of silk-worms that furnish the chief production of the island. The silk is manufactured by the women. On the north of the island olives abound, whose oil is not inferior to that of France. From the mountains flow streams sufficiently strong to turn water-mills, at every season. On every side, next the sea, are rocky cliffs, which, however, shelter partridges, woodcocks, and particularly turtle-doves, the favourites of love. In the internal parts are scattered gardens, where the most exquisite fruits and flowers abound. The men are more hospitable, and the women more mild and amiable, than those of any other part of Greece.'

The voyage from Cerigo to Maina was highly dangerous; and the republican prayer of Dimo to God, 'whom the friends of liberty never implore in vain,' and who 'cannot behold with indifference the envoy of Buonaparte,' is remarkable. Perhaps he thought it more so, that the storm should still continue four hours longer. The commissioners, however, arrived at the Morea; and their object was now developed. It was to excite the inhabitants against the Turks;

to bring on a war, of which the French were to take advantage, and conquer the country. This was the facred caufe, in which heaven was to interfere and affift! In this way was liberty to be obtained, or rather a change of mafters only; and for this the country was to be deluged in blood! We mean not to plead the caufe of tyranny, or to wifh for a continuance of the flavery of Greece; but can rejoice that it has efcaped a deliverance, the nature of which Holland and Switzerland can beft explain.

The bey of this country is ufually a Mainote, but the late officer had been difplaced as too favourable to the new doctrines, and our commiffioners were directed to this ex-bey, who had fent his fon to Italy to offer his fervices to Buonaparte, in this 'facred duty' of infurrection. The deputies, whofe fteps had been watched by the Turks, very narrowly efcaped, and reached, almoft miraculoufly, the ex-bey's habitation in fafety. Here Stephanopoli recounted the victories of Buonaparte in Italy, in the heroic ftyle of a Frenchman of the new fchool; and the bey related the horrible maffacres committed on the Albanian Turks by count Orloff. They are the epifodes in this new epic, on which we cannot enlarge.

The ruins of this diftrict, terminated by the promontory Tænarus, at prefent Cape Matapan, are chiefly thofe of the ancient Gythium, near which is the ifland Cranae; the modern names are Palæopolis and Marathonice. Many remains of art occur in thefe ruins; among the reft, a ftatue, denominated, without the flighteft reafon, 'Liberty.' The infcription at leaft is modern, Νικη ἡ Θανατος; and the ftatue more probably reprefents Victory. All the infcriptions are in the fame modern letters, and fome of them in modern Greek. The remains, however, are probably of a remote æra, though the infcriptions are of a much later date. The city of Gythium, from the extent of its ruins, feems to have been twelve miles in circumference. Two ftatues, thofe of Diana and Arion, or Apollo, feem to be of the pureft ages of Grecian fculpture; but the infcriptions are in modern Greek.

The cuftoms of the Mainotes, a fimple unaffected race, are detailed at length. Thefe, however, we cannot follow. Delegates from different parts of Greece arrived, and conferred with Dimo. They demanded only fix thoufand men to conquer the whole of Greece, but they alfo required that the fair fex and religion fhould be refpected, and no Greek difarmed; propofals that Buonaparte probably would not have been willing to adopt, if the Egyptian expedition had not turned his thoughts to another quarter.

The commiffioners, on their return, were caft away on Cerigo, near Potamos, and at laft gained a port in a defert part of Arcadia. The language and the poetry of modern Greece

offer some pleasing subjects of contemplation, and the adventures of the travellers, on their return, are interesting. Some notice is taken of the manners, the monuments, and the habitations of the Arcadians, who seem to preserve the beauty, the strength, the elegance, and the simplicity of the ancient Greeks.

From Arcadia they proceeded to Zantè, and thence to the port of Guiscardo, to the north-east of Cephalonia (near which was the ancient city of Samos), and to Corfu. There Dimo left Stephanopoli, and repaired to Venice, Milan, and Paris, where he gave Buonaparte an account of his mission. The different memoirs on the state of Greece and its islands, and on the Ottoman power, are highly interesting.

The Pieces Justificatives at the end may be styled, in English, the *Vouchers*. Among other pieces we find the report of the French academicians on Dimo's two memoirs respecting the method of using oak bark for dyeing black, and on the lemithocorton as an anthelminthic. Dimo's various adventures in this voyage, in Italian hexameters, conclude the second volume of this very pleasing work. The volumes are illustrated by various engravings of the ancient remains, and a very picturesque view of the hill on which the Temple of Venus stood, with its ruins, drawn by Stephanopoli. Some other views of inferior merit are subjoined; but we regret the deficiency of a map.

Le dix-huit Brumaire, ou Tableau des Evénemens qui ont amenée cette Journée; des Moyens secrets par lesquels elle a été préparée; des Faits qui l'ont accompagnée, et des Résultats qu'elle doit avoir; auquel on à ajouté des Anecdotes sur les principaux Personnages qui etoient en Place; et les Pieces justificatives, &c. 8vo. Paris. 1799.

The eighteenth Brumaire (8th of November); or Sketch of the Events which produced the Revolution of that Day, the secret Measures by which it was prepared, the Facts which accompanied it, and the Consequences likely to result from it; to which are added Anecdotes of the principal Characters concerned, Papers in Justification, &c. 8vo. 6s. *sewed.* Imported by De Boffe.

REVOLUTIONS and constitutions have succeeded each other with such rapidity in France for the last ten years, that a large volume may be produced in each year, with a sufficient degree of plausible reasoning on every preceding act of the legislature, and on the necessity of the last change effected by the turbulent disposition and intriguing temper of the French. The defects in the constitution of the third year were obvious

to every one: the impoſſibility of maintaining union among the pentarchs was evident almoſt to intuition; and various proofs appeared of a bad organiſation, which muſt either have given way to the firſt well-planned conſpiracy, or have expoſed France to the ſucceſsful inroads of the coaleſced powers. The faults in this conſtitution are well developed in the work before us; but it affords no novelty to the Engliſh reader. Every thing had been anticipated by writers on this ſide of the water, though the preciſe manner in which the revolutionary leaders would ſtrike the fatal blow could not have been foreſeen. It is evident, from the ſtate of parties in France, and the declaration of Buonaparte, that Paris, before his arrival, was filled with intrigue: many were deſirous of ſharing the ſovereign power, and the weakneſs of the rulers was notorious. The jacobins ſeem to have been the moſt forward in their plans; but the arrival of Buonaparte diſconcerted their meaſures; and, as he had it in his power to hold the balance between contending factions, the preponderance of his abilities, and the ſplendor of his name, gave a decided ſuperiority to the party with which he was inclined to aſſociate.

There was little need of intrigue on his part. It was not neceſſary for him to lay an extenſive plan, or to ſeek for agents to fill up the ſubordinate parts. Every thing was prepared to his hands. His former comrades in victory naturally fell into the ranks which common prudence would aſſign to them; and the moving powers in the two councils, either from prudence or affection, gave to him the arrangement of the parts in which they were to appear. The members of the directory, at this criſis, ought to have arreſted Buonaparte, and inſtituted an inquiry into his conduct for leaving the army in Egypt. As they had not courage to adopt this deciſive meaſure, their ruin was inevitable. The events of the day which overthrew the government are related in the manner in which we have ſeen them in every periodical paper. The conſpirators had very little trouble. The removal of the councils to St. Cloud, and the appointment of Buonaparte to the command of the forces, decided the fate of the conſtitution. The ſubordinate events might have happened differently; but the power of the nation was at that moment in the hands of the uſurper. The attack of Buonaparte in the council, in which his appearance was without doubt illegal, favoured his views, and formed a plauſible pretext for driving from their ſeats all the members of the deliberative body; but, had he been heard with temper, the directors muſt equally have laid down their powers, the refractory members would as eaſily have been ſeiſed, and the committee for framing a new conſtitution would have been appointed. In ſhort, the total incapacity of

the directors, manifested by the ill succefs of the campaign in Italy, and the tumults in the interior, had alienated the French from the conftitution of the third year; and their volatile difpofition eagerly induced the hero, whofe exploits were the theme of univerfal admiration, to terminate, if poffible, the horrors of revolution.

If we confider the greatnefs of the event, the change from a republican to a monarchical form of government, there is lefs to excite attention in this hiftory than in the inferior changes of the French adminiftration. Every act was performed with great facility. The confpirators took their feats, iffued their orders, feifed the refractory, and were obeyed with as much fubmiffion as if their power had been confolidated by the experience of ages. The chief feature in the revolution is the greatnefs of mind in the prime mover, who defpifed the fanguinary meafures of his predeceffors in power, and conciliated his enemies by acts of moderation and clemency. Whether he will be able to give peace to his country, and with it to fecure to his fellow-citizens the enjoyment of rational liberty, time muft difcover. Our author's expectations are fanguine; but he clofes his remarks juft as the new conftitution makes its appearance; and it is printed at the end of the work in the fame form in which it has frequently been given to the public.

On this conftitution we need to caft a glance only to convince ourfelves that it muft follow the fate of its predeceffors. It is not deftined for a long duration. It vefts the firft conful with fuch power as may enable him to meet the efforts of all the fovereigns of Europe againft his country. Perhaps it may laft, notwithftanding its defects, to the end of the firft confulfhip; but it requires the abilities and the influence of the prefent conful to preferve the machine in action. On his fall, the difcordancy of the parts will be feen; and either a new ftate of anarchy will arife, or monarchy will be reftored, without the appearance of the prefent reftraints. In fact, no monarch in Europe can be faid to enjoy fo defpotic a power as Buonaparte; and on his character feem to depend the future deftinies of France. Will he be a Wafhington or a Cromwell? The queftion is interefting; and many traits in his character might lead us to entertain a favourable opinion of him; yet they are balanced by others of fuch a nature as to render the decifion difficult.

The political remarks of this writer do not manifeft any great depth of thought. It is fufficient to obferve that he defends the privilege of the executive power to propofe laws, and confequently leaves the improvements of fociety and of the country in the breaft of the firft magiftrate. Such a pri-

vilege may be necessary in a country where the people have shown their incapacity for the proper discussion of questions of government; but it is totally incompatible with liberty.

Reise von Amsterdam über Madrid und Cadiz nach Genua, in den Jahren 1797 *und* 1798. *Von Christian August Fischer.* Berlin. 1799.

Journey from Amsterdam by Madrid and Cadiz to Genoa, in the Years 1797 *and* 1798. *8vo.* 12*s. Boards.* Imported by Escher.

THE German traveller visited Spain with the view of obtaining an intimate acquaintance with the nature of the country and the manners of its inhabitants; and he presents to us his work as a supplement and notes to the description, on a more enlarged plan, by Bourgoing. In this point of view it is admirably performed; and we observe throughout the impartiality, prolixity, and deep thought of the German character. In the first seven letters, we have a narrative of the writer's voyage from Amsterdam to Bourdeaux. In his next letter we find a good account of the Gascon character, and the nature of the wine-trade at Bourdeaux. He afterwards enters fully into the nature of the government of Biscay, and describes with accuracy the manners and language of the inhabitants. 'Biscay, as is well known, is not a subject province, but merely a province under the protection of Spain; and the union of a strip of land under such a republican form with such a monarchy is a strange anomaly in the political world. Unlimited as may be the power of the kings of Spain in their other provinces, in Biscay they retain only the appearance of respect. Here are no garrisons, customs, stamp-office, excise, or donatives. Biscay is under its own government; and if the inhabitants out of complaisance have admitted a corregidor, and a commissary of marine, the royal command is of no value without the sanction of their own magistrates. At the same time it must be confessed that the privileges of the province, and the acts of royal power, are in a state of perpetual warfare, and that the former are not always victorious. The Biscayans, in general, call themselves Hidalgos, or noblemen. In Biscay alone, they say, are the remains of the old Cantabrian nobility, unadulterated by Moorish or foreign blood. Even the king, it is said, is not so noble as a Biscayan. The poorest labourer, the richest majors, are in this respect upon a level; and though the administration of the country is in the hands of the latter, it is renewed every year by the majority of the parishes.

For the government of the country, every year, at Christmas, the following elections are made. The eight regidors, on whom at each time the right of suffrage rests, choose their successors, who elect the alcaides and other officers. All these offices must be performed gratuitously, though the regidors and alcaides enjoy some privileges from the farming of the wine monopoly, which subjects the farmer to a certain tax. The alcaide gains still more by processes of law, as it is the general custom to make him a present. It is also to be observed, that the pleadings before the alcaide are carried on by word of mouth; before the corregidor only by writing: before the latter civil causes only are tried, and criminal causes before the former. Taxes are scarcely known, as the people are only subjected to a moderate land-tax, besides a voluntary contribution to the hospitals, and are entirely free from excise, poll-tax, &c.' With all these supposed advantages, Bilbao is not suited to a liberal and cultivated mind. The manners of the inhabitants are stiff and formal; and they have the usual bad qualities of a provincial town, which, in a little Spanish town, are still more insupportable.

From Bilbao our author repaired to Madrid; in the description of which place, and of the manners of its inhabitants, he exerts his talents. From Spain he proceeded to Portugal. Speaking of the incidents of his tour on the borders of the two kingdoms, he makes a remark on the behaviour of British officers, so unfavourable to their general character, that we transcribe it merely to prevent such insinuations from gaining ground on the continent. 'A consequence of the vicinity of Badajoz, which must cease with the war, is the frequency of desertion from the English regiments at Lisbon. It is well known, that, in the beginning of the year 1796, Great-Britain took into its pay several regiments, composed of emigrants and Germans, falsely called Swiss. These regiments were transported out of the empire, by the way of Trieste, Ancona, and Civita Vecchia, to Corsica, and, on the evacuation of Corsica, by Gibraltar to Lisbon. The desertions could not, perhaps, take place, if they were not assisted by the Portuguese. The common people point out to the deserters the paths over the mountains, and the guards at Elvas permit them to pass without molestation into Spain, or, if they are musicians or mechanics, take them into their own service. Many individuals of this description were at Elvas, when the English obtained an order for their surrender; but they were forwarded immediately with recommendations to Badajoz, where they were again taken into the service. It is no wonder that the deserters go off ten and twenty at a time. The regiments chiefly consisted of vagabonds, or persons in distress, who were deceived: both parties sought freedom,

though from different grounds; but all complain of the inhuman tyrannical treatment which they receive from the English officers. As these deserters come in general in very bad circumstances, a recruiting officer of the Walloon guards from Madrid resides here, that those who are fit for service may, with less trouble and expense, be again reduced to slavery.' To those who have compared the discipline of a regiment in Germany with that of one in England, it may seem strange that a German should exclaim against the inhumanity of British officers.

Our author pursued his route to Cadiz, thence to Barcelona, of which he gives a good description; and at Hieres he embarked for Genoa. From his tour he had an opportunity of forming a true estimate of the inconveniences to which a traveller must submit who chooses this much neglected country for the scene of his observations; and at the end of his letters he gives in an appendix many useful directions for such as are preparing for a similar journey. The work is better adapted to the taste of a German than to that of an English reader.

De Pneumonia Typhode sive Nervosa, adnexis hujus Morbi Historiis, Auctore Ludovico Christoph. Guliel. Cappel, M. D. Gottingen. 1799.

Dr. Cappel's Essay on the Putrid or Nervous Peripneumony, with Cases annexed.

DISEASES of the same organ, so different in their nature and treatment as the inflammatory and putrid peripneumony, deserve greater attention in their diagnostics than they have yet received. The latter is, indeed, a disease so rare, as to have scarcely engaged the attention of systematic authors, or of nosologists; yet, since the fatality of the malignant sore throat has fixed the views of practitioners on local inflammation, attended with putrid fever, they should have carried their views farther. If they had, they would have found every variety of inflammation attended with asthenic fever, greatly differing, therefore, from the usual disease. Nosology then, it may be contended, is useless; but, in reality, the conduct of nosologists has been rash and erroneous; they have arranged diseases from a symptom, or from the organ affected, without attending to the original disorder. Those, for instance, who had seen an inflammatory peripneumony, would not be long at a loss to discover, that the putrid species was a different disorder, notwithstanding the pain of the side, the cough, and difficulty of breathing (experti loquimur). In this disease, the countenance is sunk, the eyes wander, the pulse is very weak

and rapid. Should the practitioner be, for a moment, inattentive, the first ounce of blood drawn will correct his error; for faintness and irreparable debility follow. It may be asked, then, would the nosologist separate, in his arrangement, inflammations of the same organ? He should certainly separate two distinct diseases; and, when this distinction is once established, considerable utility will result from it.

The complaint, which is the subject of the present volume, is the putrid peripneumony, which Dr. Cappel observed in M. Frank's institution at Vienna. The author apologises for his youth and inexperience; but the disease is well described, and the remarks are in general proper. He has too confidently decided upon the merits of different nosological systems, and has inconsistently preferred Brown, who gives peripneumony as the example of treating inflammatory diseases, without a hint, that it may occasionally be attended with putrid fever. In the enumeration of systems of nosology, he might have mentioned Dr. Cullen, who has not, however, provided for the present disease; and he ought to have preferred Selle's arrangement; the only system which admits the putrid inflammations in a separate order.

Dr. Cappel properly distinguishes the disease from true peripneumony; but we wish that he had collected the symptoms usually observed in well-drawn histories of the disease. From the cases annexed, there appears some essential difference between his epidemic, and those described by other authors. That which he describes approaches nearer to the gastric fevers of the continental physicians, resembling what we call *bilious*.

The remedies which are injurious in this fever are bleeding, even topically, with leeches or cupping-glasses, and purges. Though there were evidently marks of bilious saburræ in the beginning of the fever, purgatives were injurious. In the early stages, however, they seem to have been of service; but, if carried to any great extent, or employed in any degree in the later periods, they must be pernicious.

Among the external remedies, Dr. Cappel reckons warm cataplasms, warm pediluvia, tepid baths and vapours, volatile liniment, sinapisms, and blisters. Internally he recommends seneka, kermes mineral, emetics, camphor, musk, mercury, bark, opium, &c.

It appears highly probable that emetics will be of service; and, in the first stage, they must be beneficial. To this period, however, they ought to be confined; and, on this account, the kermes mineral and the seneka are doubtful remedies, since they may prove in the later periods emetic or purgative, and be of course injurious; for the debility comes on rapidly. Of mercury our author has no experience. He co-

pies from others, who have recommended calomel with opium; but it is not certain that they speak of the putrid peripneumony. Bark, it would appear, is a medicine of doubtful efficacy, as it impedes respiration, and checks expectoration. But, in a disease so violent and fatal, common rules cannot be observed; nor is there time to wait for the usual solution of the disease by expectoration. If the patient's strength be not supported by active remedies, the time will soon arrive, when none will be admissible. Bark, therefore, may be occasionally tried; and it has been sometimes, we think, useful. The principal remedy is camphor; and, directed by means of opium and warm diaphoretics to the skin, it is of great service. Sweating must be prevented; and the warm diapnoë, recommended in the plague by Chenot, is alone necessary. Wine, in proportions depending on the circumstances, forms a part of this plan.

On the whole, this work is highly respectable. Our author shows an extent of reading, which displays great diligence, and an accuracy of distinction, which equally manifests observation and judgement. In some respects he has been too hasty; and, from the predilections of his tutor, M. Frank, he seems too partial to Dr. Brown's system, which he does not appear fully to comprehend.

Olai Gerhardi Tychsen, Universitatis Rostochiensis Senioris Scr. Duci Regn. Mecklenberg. et Consiliis Aulæ; LL. O. O. P. P. O. Biblioth. et Musei Præfect. et variorum exterarum Academiarum ac Societatum Sodalis; de Cuneatis Inscriptionibus Persepolitanis, Lucubratio. 4to. Rostoch.

An Essay by Tychsen, on the cuneated or arrow-headed Inscriptions at Persepolis; with two Plates.

AT the foot of a lofty mountain which bounds the extensive plain of Merdasht, about a day's journey from the city of Shiraz, in Persia, the ruins of a magnificent edifice attract the notice and admiration of every traveller. This venerable pile has for some centuries been called the *Tokht-i-Jemsheid*, or '*Throne of Jemsheid*' (one of the earliest Persian monarchs) *and Chehlminar*, '*The Forty Columns*,' although there are scarcely twenty which the hand of time has not prostrated. The plain, in front of these ruins, was once covered with the houses of a most flourishing and populous city, the celebrated capital of the empire in remote ages, and, even in the tenth and eleventh centuries of the Christian æra, the residence of those princes who ruled the southern provinces of Persia. By what name this city was distinguished among the

natives, before the invasion of the country by the Mohammedans, has not yet been discovered; but the most ancient Arabic and Persian manuscripts with which we are acquainted, agree in calling it *Istakhar*.

Of the city, however, no vestiges remain; even its very ruins have perished; but of the stupendous edifice situated at the foot of the mountain, so much has still resisted the injuries of time and of men, that its original plan may be nearly ascertained, and some idea formed of its ancient magnificence. On the portals and the walls of some quadrangular apartments, such a multiplicity of figures are sculptured in relief, that, according to the testimony of Le Bruyn, an ingenious painter, who has published an account of those ruins, it would require no common dexterity to make drawings of them all in the space of several months. But that which has engaged the attention of antiquaries in the highest degree, is the extraordinary character of the inscriptions, which have hitherto baffled the skill of those who are most expert in deciphering ancient writings. These characters are styled by the French *nail-headed (caractères à clous)*; and we may call them *arrow-headed*. The learned Sir William Jones * described them as 'regular variations and compositions of a straight line and an angular figure, like the head of a javelin; or a leaf (to use the language of botanists) hearted and lanced.' This character may, indeed, be reckoned peculiar to these ruins, being only found on the marbles, or on gems dug up there. The difficulty of explanation, and the hopes of ascertaining the history of this ancient city, which most writers suppose to be the Persepolis of the Greek historians, induced professor Tychsen, of Rostock, celebrated for his knowledge of oriental antiquities and languages, to employ himself in arranging these characters into an alphabetical system, which he has presented to the reader as a frontispiece of the work before us. After noticing the diversity of opinions on the subject of those monuments of other days, our author endeavours to prove, that the Persepolis, or capital of Persia, mentioned by Diodorus Siculus, was rather the ancient Susa than Istakhar or Chehlminar; and that, as the palace of Persepolis, according to Quintus Curtius and Arrian, was chiefly built of cedar, and destroyed by fire, the ruins at Chehlminar must necessarily be those of some other edifice. From Francklin, Niebuhr, &c. he collects various remarks to show that no vestiges of conflagration can be discovered, and that time, assisted by the barbarism of the Moslemin, has been the principal dilapidator of this pile.

He affirms that no writer, who flourished before the time of

* 'Discourse on the Persians,' Asiat. Researches, vol. i.

Alexander, has noticed either the multiplicity of images ſculptured on the walls, or the extraordinary inſcriptions in the arrow-headed characters. On the contrary, Strabo and Arrian mention the ſhort *Græco-Perſick* epitaphs or *epigraphs*, in the tombs of Cyrus the Firſt, and of Darius Hyſtaſpes.

Where the Perſepolis of claſſic hiſtory was ſituated, and what was its original Perſian name, Mr. Tychſen thinks undecided points. He conceives the *Elymais* or עילם *Elam* of Scripture (Maccab. vi. 9.) to be a corruption of *Ailan* or *Airan*, the general name of Perſia, or the countries ſituated between the Oxus and Indus, and alſo between the Euphrates and the Perſian Gulf.

In ſhort, he finds it probable that the arrow-headed inſcriptions are of the time when the Arſacides governed that country, and that the palace, amidſt whoſe ruins they exiſt, was built by thoſe princes who ſucceeded Alexander.

An analyſis of the alphabet, by means of which our author endeavours to explain theſe inſcriptions, follows; but we ſhall haſten to the inſcriptions themſelves, and preſent them to the reader, obſerving that they are taken from Niebuhr, the moſt accurate and faithful of modern travellers, and given in lines correſponding to his engravings.

I.

1. *Osch* *patscha* *osch* AKSAK *eal-*
Is (eſt) monarcha is AKSAK mag-
2. *e.* *osch* AKSAK *osch* AKSAK *a-*
nus, is akſak is akſak per-
3. *chu* *i.* *malkeyusch* *osch* AKS-
fectus et rex. is Aks-
4. AK *yka,* *oüa* *yoâichaschak.*
ak divus pius heros admirabilis.

II.

1. *Malkeusch* *osch* AKSAK
Rex is AKSAK
2. *eale* *osch* AKSAK *osch* A-
magnus is aksak is a-
3. KSAK *acha* *i* *osch* AKSAK
ksak perfectus et is aksak
4. *Mykucha* *i* *aaschiaeo* *yk*
clemens et immortalis di-
5. *a.* *öuä* *yoâichaschak* *y-*
vus pius heros admirabilis excel-
6. *k.* *âi* *i* *uäl* *i* *aduchush.*
lens potens et ſtrenuus et bonus.

From M. Tychſen's analyſis of theſe ſtrange words, it appears that he has preſſed into his ſervice a variety of lan-

guages; but the result of his combinations will not much interest the antiquary. These inscriptions contain something of Greek, Arabic, Zend, Pehlavi, Armenian, &c. and this confusion of languages produces nothing more than the dull and fulsome repetition of the praises of Aksak (Arsaces).

We shall not be hasty in condemning; but we fear that much time and ingenuity have been employed in vain; yet it is only by such labours of learned men that we can ever expect to obtain the true object of antiquarian pursuit—historic truth. In the mean time, it is not probable that any zealous orientalist will be induced by the professor's arguments to strike off from the pillars in question those centuries of antiquity which he was fond of piling on them, while he regarded them as the ruins of Persepolis.

Philosophie über die Leiden der Menschheit, eine Lesebuch für Glüchlicke und Unglüchlicke speculativen und populairen inhalts; herausgegeben von Karl Heinrich Heydenreich. Leipsig. 3 *Vols.* 8*vo.* 1799.

Philosophy of the Passions of Mankind; a Treatise, both speculative and practical, for the Happy and Unhappy. 3 *Vols.* 10s. 6*d. Boards.* Imported by Escher.

THE philosophy of human passions is an attractive title; and the source of evil, which has excited so many disputes in the theological world, affords sufficient materials for the theory of the passions. Man, from his nature, finds a continual conflict within himself; his sensual passions drawing him down to the animal, his reason raising him to the spiritual existence. That he may, in such a situation, possess true peace of mind, the passions must be brought into subjection to the spirit; and this peace of mind, which passeth all understanding, it is the object of this philosophy to inculcate. In the pursuit we have not met with much information. The proposition, that the peace of a man's mind is in an inverse ratio to the purity of his conscience, may seem a paradox; and it is really so, when the terms are properly explained; but the investigation of it gives the true reason why so many worthy persons fall into a melancholy disposition, which frequently embitters their whole lives. Without purity of conscience there cannot be peace of mind; with purity of conscience there must be peace of mind, provided that purity has always been the same: but where is the man who can say that he has been always void of offence? He who is conscious of his own defects, is naturally anxious to subdue his passions; and he may suffer that anxiety to press so upon his mind as to become

another ſource of evil; but, when that is really the caſe, we cannot allow his conſcience to be pure; for he has loſt by this ſcrupulous anxiety, by this melancholy complaining, a degree of that purity of conſcience, which could inſure to him the peace of his mind. The peace of a man's mind muſt reſt upon the purity of his conſcience, rectified by the principles of religion; and here our philoſopher is in ſome meaſure of our opinion, though he does not ſufficiently refer us to thoſe ſaving means by which alone the conſcience can be purified, and the peace of our minds eſtabliſhed.

The common topics calculated to make a man contented with his lot are brought forward. He is told that things cannot be otherwiſe than they are; that he muſt contemplate all with a religious eye; that diſcontent with ourſelves, from a conſciouſneſs of moral weakneſs, is not to be much indulged; that paſſions naturally ariſe from various circumſtances in which we are placed. Theſe and many other remarks, which have been often made, are repeated without much addition to our ſtock of knowledge, and with little probability of exciting the attention of an Engliſh reader. For the purpoſe of introducing this philoſophy into Germany, more than a third part of the firſt volume is occupied with a German tranſlation of Madame Lambert's Advice to her Daughter, and of Charron's Eſſay on Human Miſery. In the ſecond volume, Voltaire's remarks on the earthquake at Liſbon are tranſlated; and Rouſſeau's obſervations upon the piece follow, with Kant's queſtions on ſelf-murder, and a dialogue on the worth of old women. In the third volume are anecdotes of the whims of the learned, phyſiological remarks on the hyp, &c. but, as the author complains of the Iena review, we will not purſue farther the main object of his work, or his multifarious appendages to it, leſt we ourſelves ſhould fall equally under the laſh of his cenſure.

Gemaelde von Palermo. Von Dr. Hager. Berlin. 1799.

Views of Palermo. By Dr. Hager. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Imported by De Boffe.

SICILY has been ſo much the object of Engliſh curioſity, that very little novelty can be expected from a German reſidence of even two years in Palermo. The beauty of the country, the mildneſs of the climate, the wretchedneſs of the police, the badneſs of the roads, the frequency of aſſaſſination, the bellowings of Ætna, the ſtorms and the calms of the Mediterranean, all have been the repeated themes of the Engliſh traveller; but the German, though he adds nothing to their reports, tells his ſtory in a manner that will be very

agreeable to his own countrymen. He paints the summer and the winter, and the sea, in the true German style, which disdains simplicity, and delights in aiming at bombast whenever an opportunity offers of launching forth into pompous phrases. He describes the inconvenience of insects as if he had felt them: the Scirocco wind enervated him as it did the natives: and the tarantula produces the usual dance. Many of his remarks, we must allow, are judicious, and, upon antiquities and language, replete with learning; but we scarcely can find any thing to extract which has not been anticipated by our own writers. The reception that our countrymen are said to meet with in this island seems to do more honour to their purses than their hearts. 'All foreigners are welcome, but particularly the English; for they travel over Sicily as well as other countries more than any other people. Besides, as the Englishman talks little and pays well, he is much more agreeable than the Italian of the continent, who talks more in a day than an Englishman in a week, and at last spends nothing.' It is, perhaps, in consequence of the exertions of the unfortunate Caraccioli, by whom the inquisition was abolished in Sicily, that the author can speak so favourably of the freedom that has taken place in this country on religious subjects. 'The nation is in general very much enlightened. No man asks of what religion another is, whether he belongs to Rome or Herrnhut. Excepting the Jews, who, notwithstanding the abolition of the inquisition, are not yet openly permitted to come into the country, all sects are tolerated without objection. No one troubles himself whether another was at mass, or ate flesh on a fast-day. At the table of the two archbishops were, when I was with them, eels from Messina, and veal from Sorento, for the company; and I was scarcely a day here when the letters of Thrasybulus, the examen important, and the apologists, were brought me to read.'

The arrival of the king at Palermo was expected to produce great changes in the island, to restore order and good government, and to improve the country in various respects; but it is evidently impossible to effect much whilst such crowds of monks and nuns are permitted to exist; and the reformations planned at Naples may, from the alarms occasioned by French innovations, give place to a narrower system, till the royal authority shall be fully re-established. With the advantage of climate, fertility of soil, and excellence of situation, Sicily is doomed to be an example of the ill effects of idleness and ignorance.

Bemerkungen auf einer Reise in die sudlichen Stadthalterschaften des Russischen Reichs, &c. von P. S. Pallas, &c.

Remarks made on a Journey into the southern Viceroyalties of the Russian Empire, in the Years 1793 *and* 1794. *By Peter Simon Pallas, Counsellor of State, and Knight, &c. Vol. I. with coloured Engravings.* 4*to.* Leipzig. 1799.

THE literary labours of Dr. Pallas are too well known and esteemed throughout Europe to need any particular praise on ushering to the acquaintance of our readers this new production of his pen; especially as a sort of digest of the remarks made by him on his former travels has so recently appeared from the English press in several parts of the View of the Russian Empire by Mr. Tooke. What we have now before us is the first volume of travels through the southern provinces of the empire, which the learned traveller dedicates to the emperor Paul as the first-fruits of that literary repose for which he is indebted to the bounty of the mother of his imperial majesty.

These new travels serve to complete several of the accounts delivered by M. Pallas in those formerly published by him, point out the improvements or alterations that have taken place in particular districts within the last thirty or forty years, and at the same time make us acquainted with some provinces, hitherto unexplored by men of science. Since he laid it down as a rule, in preparing this work for the press, to reject whatever might be redundant in his journals, and only to communicate such information as is not to be found in his former works, there is no doubt that they will be received with the same welcome which the labours of this literary veteran have uniformly found with the learned of Europe.

We are informed, that, weary of the noise and unceasing round of dissipation in the great residence of the Russian empire, towards the close of the year 1792 our worthy professor requested permission of the late empress to make a journey into the southern provinces of her vast dominions, for the benefit of his declining health, for completing his collection of drawings of plants for his Flora Rossica (for which purpose he procured from Leipzig an expert artist, M. Geissler), and for making such useful observations as might occur upon the spot. Catharine not only complied with his request, but likewise granted him recommendatory letters to different viceroys; and he set out from St. Petersburg on the first of February, 1793, accompanied by his wife and daughter, in hopes of enjoying the spring in the regions of the southern Volga. The roads being in a bad state, he was ten days in reaching Moscow, and did not arrive at Novgorod before the 22d of Fe-

bruary. Here he had an opportunity of ſeeing a remarkably fine aurora borealis, ſpreading a very bright beam to the north-weſt, and a fainter towards the north-eaſt, the ſpace between remaining totally obſcure.

'The ancient tumuli, on the Valday mountains, which I have formerly mentioned,' ſays our traveller, 'on the higheſt ſummits, near the Cholova and Polomet, more forcibly ſtrike the eye in winter, when all is covered with ſnow; and, becauſe, with the firs and pines that grow on them, they form an agreeable winter-landſcape, I have here placed a drawing of one of them as the vignette to this part of my work.

'The firſt of theſe barrows I found on the heights between the rivulet Cholova and the lake Vertanetz, two verſts from the village Bolotnitza, ſituate on that rivulet. The three largeſt hills of this groupe lie almoſt in a row from north to ſouth, and ſcarcely a verſt from them northwards is the lake Vertanetz, thinly ſurrounded with pines, having an exit for its waters in the Cholova, which flows into the Mſta. We paſſed theſe tumuli to the left of the ſledge-road.

'On the elevation which we continued to aſcend, are likewiſe, ſouthward from the lake, and on the right of the road, a verſt before we come to the village Rachins, four of theſe barrows, nearly in a line from north to ſouth; and with the firs and other trees that grow on them, they form a view extremely picturesque. Thoſe lying at the northern and the ſouthern extremities are the largeſt. The other barrows diſperſed about the lake Vertanetz were at this time inacceſſible, on account of the ſnow.

'Juſt before the village Somenka, on the heights, ſix of theſe diſperſed ſmaller tumuli ſtruck our ſight; and, on the higheſt ſummit, entirely unconnected, behind which, in a very ſteep vale, runs the river Polomet, a very large one ſtands ſingly, cloſe by the ſide of the road. In general, all the tumuli hereabout, for we cannot conceive them to be natural riſings of the ground, notwithſtanding their magnitude, are ſituate on the higheſt ridges of the mountains, from which the proſpect is the moſt extenſive and the fineſt; and ſo I always found the ancient barrows in Siberia uniformly in the moſt pleaſant ſituations.

'It is earneſtly to be wiſhed by all lovers of Ruſſian antiquities, that ſome of the proprietors of land in theſe parts would cauſe a few of theſe mounts to be inveſtigated with care and attention, and publiſh an account of what they may diſcover.

'The veins of coal that were diſcovered in theſe parts in 1768, have not, indeed, yet rendered it unneceſſary to import Britiſh coal, but they hold out great expectations for the future and, as the wood-fuel becomes every year dearer, they

may probably afford in time a welcome relief, to which the inhabitants are not yet absolutely forced to have serious recourse. If they hope to derive any real benefit from these pits, they must dig deeper for the strata of coals, which they will infallibly find.'

When Dr. Pallas arrived at Vishney Voloshok, a place of the utmost importance to the trade of the country, as having the grand sluices of its water-communication with the seat of empire, he found it greatly improved in the twenty years which had passed since he visited it before, and perceived a signal increase in its traffic and prosperity, the population being much augmented, and the houses in general better built.

Novgorod too, since his former journey, is a very different place; also the ancient princely residence Tver is in such a thriving way, that it may vie with the finest and most regular provincial towns of Europe. From its happy situation in point of loco-position and communication, it has all the country products at a low price and in great abundance; and travellers are here supplied with live sterlets, which are brought from the Volga, and always kept for immediate use in ponds.

At Torjok he likewise found a great increase of trade. The improving commerce of the Baltic, with the enhanced price of the products for exportation, and the various imports of the residence, seem to have imparted new life to the inland industry, and are only prejudicial to the capital towns, where the mercantile rise of the necessaries of life, both foreign and domestic, and the concomitant increase in the price of labour, have not kept an equipoise with the circumstances of men of stated incomes.

Moscow has also, within the last twenty years, greatly advanced in magnificence of buildings, and in refinement of manners, with which luxury has proceeded in an equal pace, so that the dearness of all the necessaries of life is not less striking than the abundance of those delicacies which formerly were great rarities in that prodigious city, and for the most part were not reared at home. The culture of the kitchen-garden and of the orchard has been brought to such a pitch within these few years, as to make all kinds of vegetables so exceedingly plentiful, that there is no hazard in presaging that these products must, by their superfluity alone, continue at a reasonable price, or rather that they must inevitably become cheaper every year. In the depth of winter fine large asparagus, raised in artificial beds of dung, may be had in any quantities, and great parcels of them are even sent to Petersburg. Early forced fruits are here no rarities, and in summer the most exquisite kinds of cherries, apricots, peaches, pears and apples, and even the ananas, are every where sold at a

moderate price, and inferior in no respect to the best English fruits; all of which, prior to the year 1770, were rarely seen.

'The number of excellent orchards and forcing-houses for fruits and vegetables,' adds our author, 'contribute in a great measure to this: and we owe it to truth to affirm that the late Prokopy Akimshevitch Demidof, by his example, by introducing foreign fruits at a great expense, and by a liberal communication of his garden-treasures, was the principal instrument to the rapid adoption of this branch of livelihood. Even for the introduction of several useful kinds of corn and grain, the inland provinces of Russia are entirely indebted to him. And he is forgotten! his beautiful botanical garden, which I described to the public in the year 1782, is become a desert; the rare plants and shrubs which he procured from England at such great expense, and which he bequeathed to the university of Moscow, are dispersed, and scarcely a trace of them is visible.

'Truffles have even been discovered growing about Moscow by some German yægers, which are now kept fresh the whole summer, and sold at a very moderate price in the green-market.

'Every thing in Moscow is in some degree gigantic, as well as the city itself. The palaces of the nobles, in particular, are for the greatest part colossal, peopled with several hundreds of vassals of both sexes, as menial servants or other retainers, and having the appearance of castles. The foundling-hospital is one of the greatest charitable foundations in the world. Among the country seats in the vicinity many are on establishments demanding even princely revenues. The assembly-rooms for the nobility, lately erected, where in winter at least a thousand persons of both sexes, in their most magnificent attire, appear at the balls, certainly present the largest company, and the dancing-room constructed for this company, one of the most prodigious halls in the world.'

The undertaker and manager of these assemblies is Mr. Maddox, an Englishman of great taste and enterprise, who about thirty years ago went to Moscow to seek his fortune, and there, without knowing a word of the language, and with numerous other difficulties to encounter, set up a theatre, engaged actors and actresses from Germany and France, found great encouragement, extended his plan to an opera; which likewise succeeding, he planned and erected these sumptuous rooms; and here too the success attending his talents is really surprising. With all these undertakings flourishing at once, it will be still more surprising if our countryman Mr. Maddox should not make a princely fortune.

With great pleasure could we accompany our traveller through the whole of his journey, furnishing our readers with agreeable and entertaining descriptions of all that he particularises on the way. But, as that is not possible in our circumstances, how to select where so much is exquisite is rather difficult; we must therefore resort to the *sortes Pallasianæ*, and make a few extracts as the book shall accidentally open.

With regard to the state of agriculture, &c. in the government of Pensa, Dr. Pallas speaks in the following manner:

'Agriculture is in these parts carried on with the utmost negligence, and the boors here, in the most fertile country of the empire, live in miserable smoky huts, and in the most disgusting uncleanliness. Nor do the inhabitants of this region appear to me as the best disposed part of the nation; and their behaviour to the nobility during Pugatchef's rebellion too much confirms my opinion.

'Notwithstanding the many fine studs that are kept, the price of horses has been nearly doubled all over Russia within the last twenty years. Instead of fifteen, from thirty to thirty-five rubles are usually given for an ordinary draught horse. Those of the boors of this district are generally bad, of middling and low stature. The horned cattle are likewise below the mean size. The sheep, on the other hand, of the short-tailed species, are of creditable appearance, and their mutton well-tasted, but the wool is of a poor kind; they are mostly black, and commonly drop two lambs in February. Every boor keeps hogs for his own use; and at the present season of the year the pigs, lambs, and calves, keep company with almost every boor. All the poultry are here large; the geese mostly bastardised with the Chinese or swan-goose. Great flocks of pigeons are seen about all the villages.

'The kinds of corn principally cultivated in the viceroyalty of Pensa, for barter and for domestic consumption, are rye, spelt-barley, barley, oats, peas, hemp, and buck-wheat. Amidst all this abundance of corn, they have very few proper mills; and in Pensa I could get no good bread. Wheat, in most of the districts, notwithstanding the goodness of the soil, succeeds poorly, and only thrives well in a few of the Tartarian villages in the lower regions near the river Usa. Of late the peasants have begun to cultivate a species of oats, here called the much-bearing oat [mnogoplodnoi ovetz]. Many of the kinds I neglected to examine. The Chinese or Bologna hemp would thrive here particularly well. All the corn is laid in heaps near the villages round the open threshing-floors, till it is separated and dried in winter for threshing. The straw is thrown away, except what is wanted for the cattle, and for thatching roofs. The dung likewise, in all these fat corn countries, is

cast down the precipices and into the rain-channels, and thus suffered to be entirely lost, because there is a superfluity of rich arable land and unbroken ground. Could the boors be persuaded to mix this compost with the ashes from the houses, the calcareous marl (which is no where deficient) and good black mould, and make it into ridges or heaps on dry places, at least the production of saltpetre in the empire would be greatly increased.—The hay-crops here yield from fifty to seventy poods each desættine, or 2400 square roods.'

Our traveller proceeds to give an account of the city of Pensa, its situation, and the improvements he found in it since he visited it before in 1768, particularly the great brandy-distilleries in the circle of Krasnoslobode; the mines and minerals of that province, as also its natural history. Under the last head he mentions a bastard species of the common house-cat. The cats happening to be left alone in the manor-house of Yegor Mikhailovitch Shedrinskoi, repaired to a wood behind the English garden belonging to that mansion, and there produced a breed, which the learned professor describes, and of one of which he has given an engraving. Hence he went to Petrofsk, and to Saratof; and he has given an account of the state of the colonists invited thither by Catharine II. After continuing two days at Saratof, he proceeded to Tzaritzin, on the Volga, then covered with ice of an ell in thickness. His account of the several colonies about this region, some French, but mostly German, is extremely interesting. We would willingly gratify our readers with numerous extracts from these scientific travels; but, as our duty requires the examination of so many other literary productions, it will be impossible for us to indulge our inclination in its full extent. A specimen of Tartarian antiquities seen by our author in the vicinity of the Achtuba we cannot however refrain from exhibiting.

'From Prischibinskoi may be clearly seen the beautiful dale which goes under the name of Tzarevy Pody [Tzarian Place], running in length above fifteen versts, and seven in breadth, between an arch of the Achtuba and a prominence of the high steppe. On account of the ditches and low grounds, still wet from the inundations, we took our route over a shelf of the higher steppe, on which we saw several considerable Tartarian monuments, and a tract of still more elevated ground, surrounded with tumuli. The feculent muddy stream Kulguta, or Kugultu, runs through this high station; and between it and the rivulet Zarefka, flowing out of the steppe, ten versts from Prischib, I took up my night's lodging at a cow-yard, called Guschkova Chuter, for the purpose of contemplating several remains of the Tartars.

'At about the distance of a verst, in the neighbourhood of

another farm, named Davidkof Chuter, on a water-course which bears the appellation of Podpalatnoi Yerik, and runs by one arm into the Zarefka, by the other into the Achtuba, ſtands one of the largeſt and moſt remarkable of the Tartarian antiquities now in exiſtence, about which ſtill appear many other traces of buildings and grave hillocks, like ſome other conſiderable ones immediately above the ſtream Kugultu on the higher ſteppe. Among them are particularly three, incloſed by a quadrangular wall in ruins, without ditches, through which is a paſſage on the ſouthern ſide.

'The monument on the Podpalatnoi Yerik is a barrow raiſed on a quadrangular elevation of earth, conſiſting of ſix very flat vaults abutting on each other, and covered with earth over the vaults; being about a hundred and fifty paces in circumference, and not much above a fathom within, but, from the quadrangular ſhelf on which it ſtands, at leaſt three fathoms in perpendicular height. Round the quadrangular ſhelf of the hill is the foundation of a thick ruinous wall, ſtrongly conſtructed of rough quarry ſand-ſtone, which is only found on the oppoſite ſhore of the Volga, and ſeems to have had but one entrance, on the northern ſide. The wall on two ſides may meaſure twenty-ſeven, and on the other two ſides twenty-nine fathoms. The ſhelf, however, at the foot, meaſured on the two ſides to the north and ſouth forty-ſeven, and on the two others fifty-ſix fathoms. Within the wall the ſpace round the vaulted hills is conſiderably deepened.'

The vaults of theſe hills, which have all long ſince, probably not without important diſcoveries, been broken open, are juſtly thought by our traveller to deſerve, on account of their ſtructure and ſolidity, a more accurate deſcription. It is, however, too long for our limits.

On the weſtern ſide of this mauſoleum are other ruins, which, according to the popular tradition, are thoſe of the ancient palace of the khans; Dr. Pallas, however, thinks that they are only remains of ſepulchral monuments of the Mongol-Tartarian princes and great men. Certain it is, that in the tombs of theſe parts immenſe riches have been formerly found, conſiſting of jewels, horſe-ornaments, and veſſels of maſſy gold and ſilver, moſt of which have been clandeſtinely ſold to goldſmiths and merchants, and therefore remain unknown; but ſome part coming into the Muſeum of the Imperial Academy of Sciences at St. Peterſburg, is there carefully preſerved.

It is with undiſſembled concern that we perceive this laborious inveſtigator of ſcience meditating a retreat from thoſe purſuits from which the ſtudious have ſo long reaped benefit. But the powers of the moſt able and induſtrious are li-

mitted; and it is but reasonable that they who have employed their talents and vigour to the best of purposes, the augmentation of human knowledge, should in their declining years indulge themselves in an exemption from care and in those satisfactions which they are most fitted to enjoy. We heartily felicitate our learned traveller that, by the bounty of the late empress, he is enabled to sit down for the remainder of his life, according to his own desire, in that happy clime which he has so beautifully described. Catharine II. a few years before her death, besides giving him an ample pension, gratified him with a large spot of ground in the peninsula of Taurida, where he now resides, and which it is our earnest hope that he may enjoy, in uninterrupted peace, for many years.

He informs us, that he is still working at his botanical and zoological collections, as far as his state of health will permit, and concludes by hoping, if he have yet a few years to live, with those two publications to take leave of the learned world, which, he modestly says, has honoured him through his course of life with greater approbation than he ever thought he could deserve. 'But,' continues he, 'the time of my withering is near; the storm is approaching that must blast my verdure!—To-morrow the traveller will come—will cast his eye round the field to seek me, and will not—will not be able to find me!

> 'Cujus undenum trepidavit ætas
> Claudere lustrum.'

We have great satisfaction in hearing that these travels of Dr. Pallas are so fortunate as to find a translator in Dr. Willich, from whose peculiar talents for the undertaking we entertain the most sanguine expectations. On this circumstance particularly we may congratulate the public, as, from his various knowledge, and the singular difficulties attending the style of his author, there are, perhaps, few persons in the kingdom by whom an English version of this work could have been attempted on any adequate grounds of success.

Welche wichtigen ereignisse gewinn an menschlicher und bürgerlicher Glückseligkeit haben wir in kunftigen jahrhunderte zu erwarten. Zerbst.

What important advantages in individual and social Happiness may be expected in the following Century? 8vo. 4s. sewed. Imported by Escher.

THIS is a question which will be answered very differently by almost every person to whom it is proposed. The sanguine prognosticate immense improvements in the state of humanity;

the melancholy forebode dreadful disasters; the pious man looks forward to the fall of superstition; the infidel threatens us with the decay of Christianity. The question is here treated with great judgement. The author, reflecting on the past, sees good grounds for hoping that the next generation will come into the world with considerable advantages, and that it may lay the basis for improving the species in health, form, and morals; and the reasons here given are sufficient to dispel the clouds from the brows of the melancholy, though they by no means countenance the bold schemes entertained by many sanguine visionaries.

It is supposed that the ensuing century will see mankind improved in bodily health and strength; for it will not entertain the false notions of the present century respecting the mode of treating children, and the disregard to temperance and chastity. Mothers will nurse their children; the custom of leaving the limbs of the infant at liberty will be universally adopted; as it grows older, it will be gradually accustomed to the use of cold water, to a slender diet, to labour, to an endurance of the changes of the weather, and, as Latin and Greek will confer less distinction, to an improvement of its mind in the knowledge of its own language and useful science. Marriage will be holden in the highest honour; domestic happiness will be promoted; parents will receive pleasure from the society of their children, and will not stand in need of cards and gaming to drive away *ennui* They will find it a greater amusement to instruct their offspring in religion, morality, and good manners, and in the art of cheerfully enjoying a life founded in wisdom. The masters of our great schools will perhaps be surprised at our author's strong recommendation of singing, as he would have it introduced into every place of education. Indeed he discusses the necessity of cheerfulness in youth with such propriety, that we are inclined to agree with him in recommending the opening and closing of every day by a chorus, which should, above all things, keep the voice within its natural key. Reading is another exercise which he strongly recommends; and this is neglected in an extraordinary degree in our great schools. The boys, being accustomed to read what they do not understand, can scarcely take up a newspaper without altering the tone of their voice and laying an improper emphasis on most words. This is peculiarly observable in the manner of performing religious service in church, and in the sermons of the clergy of all denominations.

The freedom of the press is to be another great advantage of the ensuing century; but its present situation is not very flattering to our author's expectations.

'To all' (he ſays) 'who live in the higher or middle ranks, the means of uſeful inſtruction will never fail, if the rulers of each country ſhould, without permitting licentiouſneſs, encourage an enlarged and ſalutary freedom of the preſs. The melancholy events of our times have occaſioned its limitation. Should its freedom be more abridged, we may juſtly entertain doubts of the progreſs of humanity; but I hope that the friends of virtue in the higher ranks will be anxious to demonſtrate to every adminiſtration the true influence of the freedom of the preſs. This freedom is the ſupport of the throne; and, far from having an influence in promoting the French revolution, it is certain that, without ſome freedom of the preſs, France would have been ſooner formed into a republic. Before printing was invented, there were revolutions and republics in the world. The pen of a writer is incapable of moving a community which feels its ſituation to be ſupportable: on the contrary, it can only reſtrain the hands of the people, and prevent their indignation from riſing to ſuch a height as to break through all ſocial order. Where the freedom of the preſs does not exiſt, the ſovereign cannot hear the wiſhes of his ſubjects, receive their complaints, or diſcover the oppreſſion which, probably againſt his will, is weighing them down: hence they who deſpiſe and oppreſs the people become haughty, and conſole themſelves in the obſcurity in which they wander.'

That the next generation will attain to a higher degree of moral perfection is a conſolatory doctrine; and it may be a ſpur to us to remove, as quickly as poſſible, our own failings.

'Our mode of life has erroneouſly introduced an artificial luxury into the articles of firſt neceſſity, and multiplied our real wants by innumerable arts. A feminine education has rendered the preſent world ſo weak, that, in ſpite of all the remonſtrances of reaſon, it cannot ſoon tear away the bands of ſervitude. Virtue is at preſent too enlarged for man, if it diſturbs him in any enjoyment of luxury or effeminate repoſe. Perhaps he willingly gives his money to a ſuffering brother; but ſtrenuous exertion, the rejection of an artificial want, or the endurance of perſonal inconvenience for the ſake of another, are too great ſacrifices to be expected from him. The contemptible cuſtom of ſatisfying every deſire, and the imitation of every new faſhion, hurry our youth, and not rarely our manhood or even old age, into the groſſeſt vices. The weakneſs of our contemporaries in this point is not to be deſcribed. Reaſon and conſcience may excite an alarm; but it is only to lament feelingly over that weakneſs which, to ſatisfy our ſenſuality and luxury, drives us into the boſom of vice.'

Religious toleration will become general: the rulers of each country will be employed in preventing scarcity and famine: attention will be paid to the poor, not merely to relieve them from immediate ruin, but to supply them with the means of making a provision for themselves: soldiers will understand that they are paid to protect the nation from every enemy, and every insult on an unarmed citizen will be considered as disgraceful to the man who wears the sword: justice will be established; the laws will be intelligible to all persons; cheerfulness will universally prevail; in short, the dreams of the golden age will begin to be realised. These may be the phantasies of a dreamer; but, if our author dreams only, he dreams pleasantly.

Dissertations on the Rhetoric, Prosody, and Rhyme of the Persians. By Francis Gladwin. 4to. Calcutta.

TO all lovers of eastern literature, the name of Mr. Gladwin, an orientalist equally ingenious and indefatigable, will be a sufficient recommendation of this work. But its intrinsic value gives it a claim to the particular attention of Persian scholars. It is a compilation of extracts, judiciously selected, and literally translated from three celebrated treatises, viz. the *Mujma-us-Synyeh* of *Nizam-eddeen Ahmed*, the *Arooz* of *Syfee*, and the *Cafeyeh* of *Shems-ed-deen*. These being obscure and prolix in the original, Mr. Gladwin has remedied the inconveniences by combining in the present volume their most useful and curious parts, with great perspicuity and conciseness.

The first section treats of the various kinds of composition among the Persians. Prose, we are informed, is of three kinds; 1. Poetical prose, having measure without rhyme; 2. Having rhyme without measure; and, 3. Simple prose, without either rhyme or measure. Rhyme and measure must be combined to form verse.

Of poetical composition there are ten kinds. We shall content ourselves with extracting a few of the passages from celebrated poets, by which the rules for those different kinds of poetry are illustrated.

'The heart is obedient to that deceitful idol: her lips are enchanters; and her locks are snakes.' P. 12.

'Since I am become a madman, why cast you not the chain of those two locks upon me—a madman?' P. 13.

'O camel-driver, proceed slowly, seeing that the comfort of my life is departing. That heart which I had kept for myself, accompanies the mistress of my affections.' P. 15.

'Yes, you have taken up your reſidence in the manſion of my ſoul: the manſion of my ſoul hath obtained dignity thereby.' P. 17.

The following lines are given as a ſpecimen of irregular compoſition.

> 'Quit not the pure and roſy wine
> Like dreg-drinkers:
> Be not without wine and melodious minſtrels
> In the houſe of the vintners.
> 'Take the cup reſembling the tulip, and ſmile thou like the roſe
> In the garden of time;
> 'That is, let [*not*] your heart be contracted like a roſe-bud
> In the garden of the world.'

We have taken the liberty of inſerting and marking the word *not* (which muſt have been omitted by ſome miſtake in the printing), as the original Perſian of the laſt couplet will ſhow that it is indiſpenſable.

> '*Eeauni keh beſaun-i-ghuncheh diltung mebaſh*
> *der baugh-i-jehaun.*'

The word *mebaſh* is literally *be not.*

The equivocal nature of ſome Arabic and Perſian compoſitions is exemplified in extracts and anecdotes, of which we ſhall here tranſcribe one from page 39.

'There is a ſtory of Akeel, that, being diſpleaſed with his brother Aly, the khalif, he went over to Moawiyeh, who received him with great kindneſs and reſpect, but deſired him to curſe Aly; and as he would not admit of any refuſal, Akeel thus addreſſed the congregation: "O people, you know that Aly, the ſon of Aboo Taleb, is my brother: now Moawiyeh hath ordered me to curſe him; therefore may the curſe of God be upon him!"—So that the curſe would apply either to Aly or to Moawiyeh.'

An example of hyperbolical deſcription occurs in p. 46.

'When that ſwift courſer undertakes his journey, he revolves round the ſphere like a pair of compaſſes; and ſo rapid is his way, that the air cannot unite again before he has completed his circuit.'

In the following lines from the Shah Nameh of Ferdouſi, the reader or hearer is left to arrange and connect.

> '*Berouz-i-neberd aun yelli-jarjem und*
> *Be ſhemſhir u khanjer, be gurz u gumund,*

Berid u derid u shekest u be best
Yellanra ser u seineh u pa'u dest.

'In the day of battle, that noble warrior, with sword, dagger, club, and mace *, cut, tore, broke, and bound, that hero's head, breast, feet, and hands.'—In the last line, for *that hero's head*, &c. we would read, 'the heads,' &c. of *heroes*, *yellan* being plural.

We meet with this distich in page 49:

'Advice from all the world is like wind in a cage:
In the ear of the ignorant, it is like water in a sieve.'

There is a kind of composition in which the first verse seems to convey a satire on the person addressed, while the second proves that the whole is an eulogium. Thus in p. 51,

'The station of your enemy is as exalted as yours;—
Yours is a throne—and his is a gibbet.'

The following anecdote is given in p. 55. 'There is a story that an old woman came to Mohammed, and besought him to pray to God to admit her into Paradise. He told her, that old women did not enter there; upon which she departed in tears and lamentations. But at length the prophet ordered one of his companions to tell her, that no old women enter Paradise, because God hath promised to restore them to youth before he removes them to the mansions of bliss.'

The second part of this volume contains a dissertation on prosody, with such rules and examples of scansion, as will prove of great service to the Persian student, although any extracts from them would probably be very uninteresting to the greater number of our readers. On this account we shall also content ourselves with recommending the third part, or the dissertation on rhyme, to the perusal of every Persian scholar; observing, however, that the typographical errors, particularly in the oriental text, are of very frequent occurrence. Notwithstanding this objection, the lover of Persian literature in England may esteem himself fortunate in being able to procure a copy of the work.

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* *Cord* would better suit the context.

Lettres d'un Voyageur a l'Abbé Barruel, ou nouveaux Documens pour ses Memoires, nouvelles Découvertes faites en Allemagne, Anecdotes sur quelques grands Personnages de ce Pays, Chronique de la Secte, &c.

Letters of a Traveller to the Abbé Barruel, or new Documents for his Memoirs, new Discoveries made in Germany, Anecdotes of the principal Characters in that Country, Chronicle of the Sect, &c. 8vo. 4*s.* Imported by Dulau. 1800.

JACOBINISM and anti-jacobinism, as far as the convent of St. James at Paris has given name to two very pernicious sects, agree in many respects. The one has committed very atrocious excesses in action: the other has shown by its writings a disposition to vie with its opponents in cruelty. The former sect denounced war against men of letters, and sent them in crowds to the guillotine: the latter sect is determined to excite, if possible, a crusade against learning; *notat et designat oculis*; it marks out upon every occasion for universal abhorrence such writers as would keep the middle line between the contending parties. Some of the emigrants from France have been distinguished for their zeal in one, as their republican brethren have been in the other, of these sects; and the letters before us show the manner in which the hospitality of a country may be abused, and domestic confusion excited. This writer pretends to find jacobinism in all quarters of Germany; and his introduction into distinguished courts affords him an opportunity of displaying his talents at anecdote, and of defaming the characters of princes and princesses who honoured him with their conversation. He does not know how to distinguish between the condescension of a lady of the highest quality over a cup of coffee, and the supposed union of several men of letters in a manifesto; and, if she advances in good humour a remark not perfectly consistent with the high notions of anti-jacobinism, she is to be stigmatised in a miserable publication as a *démocrate*. Surely this is inconsistent with every principle of morality as well as good manners; and an introduction to a court is abused, if the familiar conversation of the most exalted character in it is to be not only committed to the press by every traveller, but made the means of holding out either to ridicule or abhorrence the persons who have honoured the stranger with peculiar marks of attention. But this conduct is not, we would hope, so much the fruit of a bad heart as of the levity congenial with the French character. This traveller, *pour se faire valoir*, must, like many of his countrymen, converse with princes and princesses; and, if he has been talking with them, how can he assure the world of the fact without giving some part of the

conversation of the prince or princess; and, when he relates that conversation, why should he not endeavour to turn it to good account, and make it consistent with his general plan of proving the existence of a conspiracy of kings and princes, and men of learning, to destroy the throne and the press, to bring all men to one level of stupidity, ignorance, and poverty, and to introduce equality, atheism, and anarchy, in the room of subordination, religion, and government. The writer would make us believe that he can give us gospel proof for every thing which he asserts of this conspiracy; but, as he has concealed his name, and brought together many idle newspaper stories, such as the assassination plot formed by the mayor of Strasbourg against the cardinal de Rohan, we may justly doubt his veracity on many other points; and indeed we place little or no confidence in the greater part of his assertions. The anecdotes are all in the French manner; and the author has an hypothesis to support, which, from his situation, he was likely to adopt with too much ardour. Seeing every thing through a very discoloured medium, and not giving himself the trouble of reflecting on the faults of his own party, he can throw no new light on the troubles which now distract the European world, nor trace the causes of them with any degree of impartiality.

The conspiracy, according to this writer, began about the year 1745. Montesquieu, by his Persian Letters, led the way: Voltaire soon headed the party in France, and Frederick the Great in Germany; Wieland gave it the greatest assistance by his writings; and Weishaupt, Knigge, and others, organised the inferior conspirators. We wonder that it is not added, that Hume took the lead in Great-Britain, and kept up a constant correspondence with his brother conspirators abroad, and all the free-masons in his own country. Throughout there is an evident misconception of the nature of free thinking and free speaking in the different parts of Europe; and the success of certain writers in France and Germany arose from causes which are not investigated in this work. No conspiracy, we may be well assured, was formed by Hume and Rousseau, Frederick and Voltaire; but the three last-mentioned writers were likely to produce a greater effect in their respective countries than Hume with us, because there was less freedom of discussion allowed abroad, and the vices in the constitution of church and state were so gross, as to afford constant marks for the wit of the satirist, and the arguments of the philosopher. In England Hume's works were read; many were pleased with his style; he was pitied for his want of religion; his productions were circulated without interruption; and his arguments were refuted.

Kant, whofe philofophy few in England will read, is mentioned as a writer in the caufe of jacobinifm. Some tricks played off in Germany, by which the credulity of the ignorant was abufed, and money extorted upon the ftale pretence of raifing fpirits and apparitions, are, it feems, founded on jacobinifm. In fhort, princes, priefts, free-mafons, newspaper writers, &c. were all at work to form the coloffus of jacobinifm. But we have in vain looked over the whole of this work for a fingle new document worthy even of M. Barruel's Memoirs; or for a new fact on which the anti-jacobins will choofe to prefs their adverfaries. That reader muft be a very determined anti-jacobin who will give any credit to the affertions or infinuations which appear in this ftrange farrago; and the averfion which jacobinifm has infpired by its acts, cannot be increafed by the mifreprefentations with which thefe letters abound.

OCCASIONAL RETROSPECT OF FOREIGN LITERATURE.

AS it cannot be expected that the professors or the cultivators of literature should be content with the review of those publications only which issue from the presses of their own country, it has been the constant endeavour of the editors of literary journals to gratify the public with accounts of such foreign works as are most attractive or important: but their aims have been obstructed by occasional difficulties and disappointments, particularly those which arise from war. In consequence of these checks and interruptions, our Retrospect of Foreign Literature has been frequently imperfect and unsatisfactory. We have lately, however, had an opportunity of establishing such means of communication as will enable us to extend our retrospect, not merely by hints from foreign journals, but by valuable original communications. This improvement of the Appendix will, we hope, be considered by our readers as an additional proof of our desire of rendering our journal worthy of public encouragement.

FRANCE.

Renouvellemens Periodiques, &c. The Periodical Renewals of the Terrestrial Continents, by Louis Bertrand, professor at Geneva, 8vo.—This work, as the author informs us, is designed for those who delight in ascending from effects to causes. They will here find a multitude of facts, mostly derived from Saussure's celebrated journeys to the Alps. These facts have sometimes an appearance even remote from each other. The author says that he presents them under points of view which prove their dependence upon a common cause; so that, like medals struck with various impressions by the same blow of the press, the same cause may present the reasons of distinct characters. The author considers the earth as being enveloped with different strata, formed by vegetable spoils of all kinds, during the intervals of different inundations; and his system is, that the earth has in all its parts been successively

covered and laid open by the waters. He refutes the fyftem of Leibnitz on the caufes which have prepared the actual ftate of this earth: he gives a detail of, and draws confequences from, different phænomena obfervable in the Alps: he difcuffes the opinions of Buffon, Sauffure, and De Luc, on the manner in which the waters have left our continent; and concludes that the operation muft have been fudden and violent: he draws confequences from the prefent ftate of the Alps, he judges of the original formation of continents, and enters into mineralogical details to refute the idea of De Luc, that continents tend to a permanent ftate, which will be the beft. He concludes, from the phænomena of the magnetic needle, that the earth is a hollow fphere; and he explains its compofition and progrefs. After having fhown how vegetation and life are preferved, he enters into fome details concerning plants and animals, the fituation of mountains, the petrifactions of animals, &c. and ends with the explanation of feveral phænomena. The learned reader will of courfe compare this work with the Geological Effays of Mr. Kirwan. For our parts, as we were not confulted in the formation of this world, we confefs that we know nothing of it. We have feen fo many fyftems rife and fall, that we abandon the whole ftudy as defperate. When geological refearches are confined to their proper depth and province, they are very interefting. But geology, or the knowledge of the earth, fo far as we can explore it, is very different from *cofmotechnics*, or the fabrication of imaginary worlds.

Hiftoire Naturelle, générale et particulière, par Le Clerc de Buffon, &c. A new edition of Buffon's general and particular Natural Hiftory, enlarged and improved by Sonnini and others.—We are pleafed with an opportunity of announcing this very elegant edition of Buffon's works. The editor's object is to give a complete fyftem of natural hiftory; and, with this view, he has fupplied the defects of the former parts publifhed by Buffon, and added what that able naturalift left unnoticed. As Buffon, befides the general view of nature and natural objects, gave only accounts of quadrupeds, of birds and of minerals, M. Cepède has continued the natural hiftory, by publifhing two volumes, containing the defcription of ferpents, which we formerly noticed; and he is now publifhing the hiftory of fifh. On thefe fubjects, we do not find any notice taken of the publications of this diftinguifhed philofopher in the profpectus before us. The editor means, however, as the title-page informs us, to add 'the natural hiftory of reptiles, of fifh, of infects, of worms, and finally of plants, which Buffon had no time to examine.' His affiftants are Latreille, attached to the mufeum of natural hiftory, who has undertaken the entomological part; and Denys Montfort, who will treat

of the history of worms, including that of shells, and, at the same time, furnish the necessary plates. Those of Buffon will be retouched, and the others copied from nature, or from the best masters. The only volumes yet published of this work are the 11th, 12th, 13th, 14th, 17th, and 18th: these we shall notice in our next appendix.

Avis des Editeurs de l'Histoire Naturelle, &c. Address to the Public from the Editors of Buffon's Natural History.—This is chiefly an apology for interrupting the series of the volumes. At the end of the treatise on the loadstone, Buffon had given very extensive tables of the declination of the magnetic needle, and numerous geographical charts, pointing out its variation in different regions. The engraving and the printing will, of course, occasion some delay. These tables and charts are in none of the 12mo. editions, nor in all the copies of the 4to. edition. The XVth volume, containing the conclusion of the chapter of the loadstone, with the tables of declination, is, by this time, published; and we may soon expect the remainder of the tables, the atlas, some new articles, and a descriptive (raisonnée) table of the subjects discussed in the theory of the earth and the history of minerals. In the volumes which have appeared, the additions are numerous and important. Buffon's theories, sometimes exceptionable, must of course remain; but the notes contain the most valuable and important facts discovered since his time. Copies may be procured beautifully and accurately coloured.

Histoire Naturelle de Buffon, &c. The most instructive and interesting parts of Buffon's Natural History, digested by P. Bernard, 10 vols.—This work is an abridgement of Buffon, conveyed in the language of the editor. The sixty volumes of Buffon and his continuators are certainly too extensive and tedious for a common library; but, on the other hand, it is the inimitable eloquence of Buffon which forms the chief charm of the work. We wish that some writer of taste would reprint those parts only which were executed by the masterly hand of that writer. The work, even in its utmost extent, is imperfect; and the plan which we now recommend would contain every thing that could interest the general reader.

Histoire Naturelle des Oiseaux d'Afrique, &c. Le Vaillant's Natural History of African Birds.—We have now only to announce the delivery of the eighth fasciculus, which completes the first volume of this beautiful and accurate work, in folio and quarto, and concludes the second volume in the duodecimo form.

Manuel Œconomique des Plantes, &c. An Œconomical Manual of Plants, or a Treatise on all the Plants which may be useful to the Arts; by Buchoz, 8vo.—The French greatly excel us in introductions to science, as their many manuals may

evince. Their manuals of mineralogy, chemiſtry, &c. can ſcarcely be ſurpaſſed. The radical flaw of our books of ſcience is a complete neglect or contempt of that part which is the moſt requiſite—the ideas which lead from ignorance to knowledge. An Engliſh book of ſcience commonly ſtarts in the firſt page with a language abſolutely unknown to the reader, and without either a gloſſary or definitions; ſo that, for want of a proper foundation, the whole fabric becomes uſeleſs. The author ſeems to ſuppoſe that the reader is as wiſe as himſelf, and only reads the book as a new digeſt of what is already known. Whether this be done from deſign to preſerve the neceſſity of teaching *vivâ voce*, or ariſe from the author's want of ſkill, it is equally pernicious to the diſciple. The French manuals, on the contrary, ſeldom fail to preſent the neceſſary preliminary ideas.

Philoſophie Entomologique, &c. Entomological Philoſophy, or an Introduction to the Knowledge of Inſects, by St. Aamans, 8vo. Ajen.—An uſeful introduction, with an account of the beſt ſyſtems which have been followed in the arrangement of inſects.

La Flore des Environs de Paris, &c. The Flora of the Vicinity of Paris, by Thuillier; a new edition.—This Flora, of which we formerly gave ſome account, is greatly enlarged. It is arranged according to the Linnæan ſyſtem, contains the names and deſcriptions of the plants in Latin and French, mentions the places where they are found, their duration, time of flowering, the colour of the flowers, &c. and refers to the authors who have beſt deſcribed them, and given the moſt correct delineations.

Flore Economique, &c. The Œconomical Flora, or an Account of the Plants which grow around Paris, amounting to more than 400 genera, and 1400 Species; by a Society of Naturaliſts, 8vo.—This very uſeful work is digeſted in alphabetical order, and includes almoſt every information that could be wiſhed upon the ſubject.

Hiſtoire abrégée, &c. An abridged Hiſtory of Shell-Fiſh, their Manners, and their Loves, 4to. with Plates.—The author profeſſes to write for thoſe ladies who are fond of collecting ſhells.

Diſcours d'Ouverture, &c. A Diſcourſe at the Opening, and another at the Cloſe of a Courſe of Natural Hiſtory, 4to.—Theſe diſcourſes throw new light on many important topics of natural hiſtory.

As we are here treating of natural hiſtory, we may remark, that the Hiſtory of Apes by Audebert is almoſt completed: Voltaire would have adviſed that it ſhould be bound up with that of tigers.

Le Philoſophiſme, &c. Philoſophiſm unmaſked, and Phi-

losophy revenged, from the German of Kant, by Secretan, Professor of Philosophy, 8vo.—This pamphlet is divided into two parts, aphorisms on false philosophy, and aphorisms on true philosophy; and it concludes with advice to youth respecting the pursuit of truth.

L'Esprit de l'Encyclopédie, &c. The Spirit of the French Encyclopædia, containing those Articles which are the most generally interesting, 8vo.—Of this selection, eight volumes have already appeared.

La Physique reduite en Tableaux, &c. Sketches of Natural Philosophy, and a Prospectus of a Course of Physics at the Polytechnic School, by Stephen Barruel, 4to.—This work is divided into thirty-eight parts, exhibiting a good view of the present state of knowledge in this department.

Des Signes, &c. Of Signs, considered with regard to their Influence on the Formation of Ideas; by Prevost, 8vo. This is one of the memoirs presented to the National Institute.

Tableaux, &c. Sketches of Lectures on Chemistry at the Medical School of Paris, by Fourcroy.—The name of the author is sufficient. We learn with pleasure that he is about to publish his system of chemistry.

Dissertations sur les Fiévres, &c. Dissertations on Fevers, by Alibert. This physician divides fevers into eight species, according to their leading symptoms, and treats particularly of the malignant intermittents. The source of the infection can be often traced, but not the particular nature of the putrid particles. The author seems to suspect that they may be combined with the oxygen, and become deleterious on its decomposition in the lungs. At the embouchure of a river in the Valteline, where the exhalations are so unhealthy, that almost every one who sleeps a night in that part of the country is infected with fever, the air, compared with that of Mount Legnone, forming a chain with the high mountains of the Grisons, at the height of one thousand four hundred and forty toises, was found, by every test, to be of superior purity. Many similar trials were made with the same result. We may not have a better opportunity of observing that Girtanner has lately discovered azote to be a compound of hydrogen with a small proportion of oxygen. M. Alibert's history of these malignant fevers is valuable, and the practice sound and judicious.

Essai sur les Combustions Humaines, &c. Essay on Human Combustion. M. Lair has collated numerous cases of spontaneous combustion, and finds them in every instance occasioned by the abuse of spirituous liquors. The various circumstances adduced from authors of undoubted credit give some foundation for the real occurrence of an event, which many have considered as fabulous. It has only happened in *old women*. The combustion, in M. Lair's opinion, is always

accidental, not pre-excited by inteftine movements in the body, but communicated by fome burning body. The extremities have often been fpared by the flames; and this fire has frequently been rendered more active by water, while it has not communicated to any adjoining combuftibles. This author has not explained the caufe of the inflammation. It is however probable, if the blood abounds with hydrogen, that the exhalations communicating with the candle or the fire form a train of combuftible vapour.

Defcription des Arts, &c. A Defcription of Arts and Trades by the Academy of Sciences at Paris; with Plates. Vol. XX. folio.—In this volume, Quinquet treats of the art of printing.

Effai fur l'Art, &c. Effay on the Art of making Glafs; by Loyfel, 8vo.—This work is very complete in its kind, and gives inftructions for colouring glafs in imitation of precious ftones.

Profpectus d'un nouvel Ouvrage fur la Minéralogie, par Augufte Traverfay. Profpectus of a new work on Mineralogy, by Auguftus Traverfay.—This is defigned as an elementary work. The author follows the fyftem of D'Aubenton, which we long fince recommended as the happieft union of the two contending plans, the chemical arrangement and that which is derived from form and other external characters. He intends, however, to add a defcription of the fubftances which D'Aubenton omitted, or which have been fince difcovered, and to introduce fome chemical diftinctions of which that writer neglected to take notice.

Mémoire fur la Teinture, &c. A Memorial by Felix on Dyeing, &c.—The beautiful red of the Levant, what is commonly called the red of Adrianople, we long defpaired of being able to imitate. But we have now approximated to it; and M. Felix, who defcribes, in this memoir, the method employed in the Eaft, will ftill farther affift us. It is a madder colour, heightened by foda; and the art confifts in feizing the moment when the alkaline bath has given it the moft brilliant hue.

Deux Rapports, &c. Two Reports made to the Society of Emulation at Rouen, refpecting the Confumption of Wood as Fuel, &c. 4to.—In the new furnace, the conftruction of which it is impoffible to explain without the plates, the faving of fuel is five fevenths. To make water boil in one of the hofpital furnaces, required three hundred and fifty-four pounds of wood; it now boils with one hundred; and if the new furnace fhould be employed in every department of the hofpital, M. Teffier calculates that the faving would amount to fifteen thoufand francs annually.

Rapport du Comité des Soupes Œconomiques, &c. Report

of the Committee eftablifhed at Geneva for the Diftribution of Soup.—Having lately noticed count Rumford's Plan, we have been induced to mention this fuccefsful application of it at Geneva. For feven liards and eight or nine centimes, twenty-four ounces of foup are furnifhed; and twice that quantity will fupport a labouring man for a whole day. The whole expenfe does not exceed three fous (three halfpence Englifh).

Manuel Tinctoriel, &c. A Manual of Plants, employed in Dyeing and Painting, with fome Accounts of Animals and Minerals employed for that Purpofe; by Bucoz, 8vo.—A new edition of an ufeful book.

Fragmens d'Architecture Gothique, &c. Fragments of Gothic Architecture; a Work ufeful and inftructive to Architects and Amateurs, by Grohmann. Folio.—The firft number contains reprefentations of the church of Naumburg (Saxony), the plan, portal, &c. the other fubjects are from the church of Batalha, in Portuguefe Eftremadura, and from that of Lavenham. This account of Gothic architecture, though feebly executed, will yet be interefting to Englifh amateurs.—The fame author has alfo publifhed in folio a collection of defigns for country-houfes, pavilions, hermitages, &c.

Fragmens et Ornemens, &c. Fragments and Ornaments of Architecture, drawn at Rome after ancient Models, by Moreau, forming a Supplement to the Work of Degodets. Folio. —This work appears in numbers, each containing fix plates.

Méthode pratique, &c. Practical Method of teaching to read, by Neufchateau, 8vo.—The author examines former methods of inftruction, and gives fome new tables, which feem to deferve attention.

Cours d'Inftruction, &c. A Courfe of Inftruction for the Dumb, by Sicard.—An interefting work, which may be compared with thofe in Englifh upon the fame topic.

Pafigraphie et Pafilalie, &c. Elements of the Art of writing and fpeaking what may be underftood in any Language, 4to.—Of this work we fhall not pretend to form a proper judgement.

Tableau Hiftorique, &c. An hiftorical Defcription of a triple Eftablifhment united in one Hofpital at Copenhagen, to fecure Affiftance to Mothers and Children.—This refembles our Lying-in Hofpital; and it is a matter of juft exultation that fcarcely a charitable inftitution in foreign countries can be mentioned which has not been practifed in England.

Le Petit La Bruyère, ou Caractères et Mœurs des Enfans de ce Siécle, &c. La Bruyère the Younger, or Characters and Manners of Children of the prefent Times; a Work intended for the Inftruction of Children from Twelve to Thirteen Years of Age, except the Ten laft Chapters, which are compofed for the Ufe of People in general; by Madame de

Genlis.—This lady has discovered, in the course of her travels, some very wonderful children. One at the age of thirteen draws, sings, plays on the harp, the harpsichord, and the guitar; understands the French, English, Spanish, and Italian languages; embroiders to perfection; sews better than any of her age; makes her own dress, keeps her mother's house, pays the labourers their wages, and distributes alms to the poor. All this is done by a strict attention to the disposal of time; but such wonderful effects are not in general to be expected. Most of the characters are drawn in this manner in too high colours; and perhaps the time of the young is better employed on the lessons prescribed by their teachers than in an exercise which may teach them to criticise narrowly each other's conduct. The judgement of characters is too difficult a study for early years; and the examples taken from real life of the effects of virtue and vice in a more advanced age, are better suited to the capacities of children. This work is more proper for mothers than for their children; and the remarks proceeding from one who has seen so much of life cannot fail to be interesting. The contrast between the youth of France and England is placed in a striking point of view, and it is to be lamented that the fashions of higher life seem intended rather to increase than to diminish the defect in our nation. 'Young Frenchmen ill educated possess in general the affectation of impetuosity and of ardent and passionate emotions; young Englishmen affect a contrary character, that of indifference bordering on contempt, extreme coolness, and an air of carelessness and inattention. The former afford subjects for ridicule, but not for aversion; the latter excite less derision, but their behaviour is more censurable from its offensive nature as well as the pride on which it is founded.' In the present taste for polite parties, the preference given by madame de Genlis to a table d'hôte above a fashionable dinner may seem extraordinary; but it was really a relief at Paris to sit down at table without the trouble of ceremony and etiquette; and as the inhabitants of the west end of the town are now aping the ancient French manners, fashionable company will soon be distinguished by its insipidity. This work will not add greatly to the reputation of the authoress; but it contains, in her usual style, both amusement and instruction.

Nouvelle Méthode d'Enseignement, &c. New Method of Instruction for the First Part of Childhood; by Madame de Genlis. 1799.—The experience of this ingenious lady in education renders her remarks on this subject interesting to parents and instructors; and in the volume before us they will find many suggestions worthy of attention. Among them we were struck with her method of teaching drawing and painting. She had observed that her pupils who had begun at the age of six

or ſeven rarely did any thing till they were between nine or ten, and that all the pains employed in the uſual way might be ſaid to have been well loſt upon them. From that age to between thirteen and fourteen little progreſs was made. At fourteen they really began to learn. Hence ſhe recommends, that, inſtead of putting a pencil into the child's hands, the maſter ſhould draw before it a number of objects; we will ſuppoſe, for example, an eye: of many eyes thus drawn the child is to tell which is the beſt; and thus every day, till by degrees its judgement will be formed: and then the mechanical part of the art will be eaſily acquired. This work alſo contains dialogues for children, and hiſtorical and moral romances. In tales, madame de Genlis has always ſhown great talents; and one in this work, taken from real life, of a Poliſh nobleman, who gave up ſixteen acres of wood in an iſland in his park to the poor of the neighbouring village, as they were in the greateſt diſtreſs from the ſeverity of the year 1774, and left the iſland, after the wood was felled, entirely to the management of his four children, two ſons and two daughters, is a vehicle of much inſtruction and amuſement. The iſland was the means of giving his children a much better education than they would otherwiſe have received; and the grand moral contained in the tale is to inſtruct young people in the uſeful arts, as well as in faſhionable accompliſhments.

Code Moral, &c. The Moral Code for the Inſtruction of Youth, and of the different Claſſes of Society, from the mere Citizen to the Stateſman, by Valant, 12mo.—This is an inſtructive collection of ſentences and maxims, arranged in alphabetical order.

Second Diſcours, &c. A Second Diſcourſe on Univerſal Hiſtory, publiſhed in Numbers, 8vo.—This is intended as a ſupplement to the work of Boſſuet.

Syſtème Analytique, &c. An analytical Syſtem of the Notions to be acquired for the perfect Knowledge of the Hiſtory of a Nation, and the Plan to be followed in writing it; by Chantreau.—Worth reading.

Mémoires Hiſtoriques, &c. Hiſtorical and Diplomatical Memoirs of Barthelemy.—This work preſents many juſt reflections on the incapacity and tyranny of the late French directory.

Hiſtoire de la Révolution, &c. Hiſtory of the Revolution and Counter-Revolution in England, containing the Civil Wars under Charles I. &c. including the Reſtoration of Charles II. and its Conſequences; by Millon.—This work is adapted to the preſent train of ideas in France; but the ſources are good, and it is drawn up with ſome care.

Des Suites, &c. Of the Conſequences of the Counter-Revolution of 1660 in England, by B. Conſtant.—The writer's

object is to caution the French against the restoration of monarchy in their country.

Tablettes, &c. Koch's Chronological Tables of the Revolutions which have occurred in Europe.—These tables begin with the deluge, and terminate with the year 1797.

Essai sur les Causes, &c. Essay on the Causes which, from the 18th Day of Fructidor (Sept. 4, 1797) ought to have consolidated the French Republic; and Remarks on those which have tended to ruin or weaken it; by Guy Chaumont-Quitry. —This writer is of opinion, that the revolution which favored the directory had a tendency to the support of the republic; but that the abuse of the power then granted by law to the prevailing party destroyed the good effects which might have resulted from that revolution.

La Prusse, &c. Prussia and her Neutrality, 8vo.—A political work, in which the author attempts to persuade the king of Prussia to depart from his neutrality. That prince may with equal justice and candour persuade the author to throw his book into the fire.

Examen de la Conduite des Puissances de l'Europe, &c. An Examination of the Conduct of the European Powers since the Beginning of the French Revolution, and of the natural Consequences of that Event; by a Member of the Germanic Body.—The object of this pamphlet is to show that all the ill success of the combined powers is imputable to want of promptness in the commencement of their operations, and of union in those operations. The writer, a man of no mean talents, endeavours, by many remarks on the increasing power of France, and on the principles which it is always favouring, to persuade the combined princes to an uniform and cheerful co-operation; with what success the recent defection of the emperor Paul shows us! If the author be a true prophet, the kings of Europe must tremble; for he thinks, that there is no alternative for them but to destroy the French republic, or themselves to be destroyed. We are not, however, of this opinion; and, if peace were to take place to-morrow, we think it very probable that the powers of Europe, under their present arrangement, might co-exist twenty years with the French republic.

De l'Avenir, &c. Of the Future, and of a Change of Dynasty, 8vo.—This pamphlet appeared a few days before the revolution which placed Bonaparte at the head of the French government. This circumstance, however, seems to have been merely accidental, as the work presents arguments for placing the former dynasty on the French throne.

Histoire secrete, &c. A secret History of Spies during the Revolution, and of the Causes which accomplished it, 2 vols.

8vo.—A meagre collection from pamphlets and gazettes, and full of gross errors.

Procés Fameux, &c. Celebrated Causes judged before and since the Revolution, with a Detail of the Circumstances which accompanied the Condemnation of the great Criminals and the Victims who perished on the Scaffold; 12mo.—A work of useful reference.

Le Nouveau Paris, &c. New Paris, by Mercier, 6 vols. 8vo.—A prolix work, with some good parts, like the former picture of Paris by the same author.

Du Ré-établissement, &c. On the Re-establishment of the Jesuits, and of Public Education.—The writer of this tract proceeds upon the old fable, that the existence of the Jesuits is necessary to the existence of monarchy. Does he forget the numerous crimes of the Jesuits, the assassinations of monarchs, &c.? Does he forget that the Jesuits acknowledge no superior but the pope, and are the sworn enemies of whatever opposes his unlimited power? His effrontery at least is truly jesuitical.

Mémoires sur l'Egypte, &c. Memoirs on Egypt, published during the Campaigns of Buonaparte.—This work is already translated. Travellers who have visited the country assure us that great mistakes occur both in the text and in the maps. For the sake of science we wish that the French had been permitted to remain in Egypt for three years longer. They would have served the views of our African Society better than any missionaries whatever.

Etat Militaire, &c. The Army List for the Year VIII, &c. —This calendar enters into many tactical details, not to be found in our similar publications.

Précis des Evénemens Militaires, &c. A Summary of Military Events, in the Campaign of 1799.—This journal maintains the high reputation which it deservedly acquired for clear and impartial accounts of military transactions.—We may here intimate that many works published at Paris concerning the French campaigns and generals our limits will not permit us to consider.

Histoire de Russie, &c. The History of Russia, by C. Levesque, Member of the Institute; a new Edition, corrected and enlarged by the Author, and brought down to the Death of the Empress Catharine II. 8 vols. 8vo.—This work is deservedly esteemed, in preference to that of Le Clerc.

Histoire de Catherine II. &c. History of Catharine II. Empress of Russia, by J. Castéra, 3 vols. 8vo.—When we examined the first edition of this work, we bestowed some praise on the writer, but censured the imperfection and superficiality of various parts of the history. M. Castéra has since extended and improved the work, not only by giving a sketch of the history of Russia from the earliest times, and introducing an

accurate ſtatiſtic view of that empire, but by interweaving new incidents, and ſtating former intelligence in a more complete and ſatisfactory manner.

Hiſtoire abrégée, &c. An abridged Hiſtory of the Lives of the Popes, from St. Peter to Pius the Sixth. 3 vols. 18mo. —This ſatirical bauble is only remarkable for being printed and ſold in the Sorbonne itſelf.

Collection Portative de Voyages, traduits de differentes Langues Orientales et Européennes. A portable Collection of Accounts of Travels, tranſlated from different Oriental and European Languages, 16mo.—We have received three volumes of this publication, for which we are indebted to M. Langlés, keeper of the Oriental MSS. in the National Library at Paris, and member of the *Inſtitut National.* The firſt volume exhibits the travels of Abdul-Kerim, a Caſhmerian of diſtinction, who viſited Perſia in the train of Tahmas Kouli Khan or Nadir Shah, went from that country to Baghdad, Damaſcus, and Aleppo, performed a religious pilgrimage to Medina and Mecca, and returned to Bengal in the year 1749. This tranſlation is from the Engliſh, publiſhed by Mr. Gladwin at Calcutta in 1788, from the original Perſian manuſcript of Abdul-Kerim. M. Langlés has added many excellent notes, and two beautiful engravings, repreſenting the dreſſes and figures of the women of Aleppo and of the Bedouins, or Arabs of the deſert. In the ſecond volume we find an account of the journey of Abdurrezak from Perſia to Hindoſtan in the years 1442, 1443, and 1444 of the Chriſtian æra, tranſlated from the Perſian work, entitled *Matlaa as 'ſaadin.* This occupies only a ſmall part of the volume, the remainder of which contains a tranſlation of a part of Captain William Francklin's Narrative of his Journey from Bengal to Shiraz in Perſia, in 1787 and 1788, originally publiſhed at Calcutta, and reprinted in London. This volume contains a neat view of Shiraz from Niebuhr, and of the tomb of Hafiz from Kœmpfer's Amœnitates Exoticæ. The third volume concludes the account of Captain Francklin's Journey to Perſia, and his remarks on the tranſactions which took place there in the two years above-mentioned. We alſo meet with an hiſtorical memoir on Perſepolis, by M. Langlés, who has collected, from various manuſcripts and printed works, all that has been hitherto written on the ſubject of Iſtakhar, or Chehlminar, the ſuppoſed remains of Perſepolis. This volume contains a pretty engraving, which repreſents the coſtume of a Perſian ſmoking the *narguil,* a lady playing on a guitar or ſimilar inſtrument, and a child, with a diſtant view of the minaret or ſteeple of a moſque, &c. Theſe tranſlations are all executed with ſpirit, and enriched with valuable notes by M. Langlés.

Voyage à Canton, &c. A Voyage to Canton, the capital

of the province of that name in China, by Goree, the cape of Good Hope, and the islands of France and of the Re-union; accompanied with observations on the voyages to China by Lord Macartney and Citizen Van Braam, and a sketch of the arts of Hindostan and China; by Cossigny.—This work presents little new: its chief objects are to criticise the voyages of Macartney, and Van Braam, and to elevate the importance of the Isle de France in preference to the Cape of Good Hope. The remarks on former voyages are however conveyed in a moderate tone; and the information concerning Chinese botany and chemistry is sometimes interesting.

Rélation du Voyage, &c. An Account of the Voyage performed in Search of La Pérouse, by Order of the National Assembly, during the Years 1791, 1792, and the first and second Years of the Republic; by C. Labillardiere, one of the Naturalists employed in the Expedition, 2 vols. 4to. with an Atlas in Folio: another Edition in 2 vols. 8vo with a Quarto Atlas.—No accounts having been received from La Pérouse for three years, the national assembly, with laudable attention, dispatched two vessels in quest of him, under the conduct of d'Entrecasteaux. Many men of science accompanied this commander, who was ordered to proceed towards the route which La Pérouse must have followed after his departure from Botany-Bay. The attention of the present author is chiefly directed to the manners of the different nations, and the natural history of the several countries. It appears from this work, that several geographical improvements have arisen concerning the south-west coast of New Holland;—that a strait has been found at the southern extremity of that country; and that discoveries have been made of a great number of islands to the west of New Caledonia, and of a vast chain of rocks on the north of that island.

Voyage Historique, &c. An Historical and Picturesque Voyage to the Islands of the Levant, formerly belonging to Venice; by Saint Sauveur, 3 vols. 8vo. with an Atlas and Prints in 4to.—The author was formerly consul of France at Corfu; and his work seems to possess considerable merit. The prints chiefly consist of views of the country, ancient monuments, and medals.

Abrégé du Voyage, &c. An Abridgement of the Travels of celebrated Authors, such as Pococke, Niebuhr, Chardin, &c.—Another part of the same series.

Nouveaux Voyages, &c. New Travels in the States of Barbary, the Empire of Morocco, Egypt, Abyssinia, and Sennar; extracted from the best modern travels, 2 vols. 8vo.—This is an useful supplement to the general history of voyages and travels published by Prevost and La Harpe. The chief sources are Shaw, Bruce, Norden, and Savary.

Voyage en Angleterre, &c. Voyage to England, Russia,

and Sweden, in 1775, by Lescallier, 8vo.—The author having a naval employment at the time, the little intelligence here given chiefly relates to maritime affairs.

Voyage en Irlande, &c. A Tour in Ireland by Arthur Young, translated by Millon, 2 vols. 8vo.—This we only mention because the translator has added his own researches concerning Ireland, a country with which the French are very desirous of being better acquainted.

Lettres écrites de Suisse, &c. Letters written from Switzerland, Italy, Sicily, and Malta, by Roland, Minister of the Interior, 6 vols. 12mo.—These letters were first published in the year 1780, and are republished without any addition. At the end of the last volume are some curious observations on the silk manufactures of Lyons, written while the author was inspector of the manufactures of France. The melancholy fate of this honest man, who was lifted out of his sphere by the whirlwind of the revolution, and expected (a common deception) to find in every other bosom that integrity which he himself possessed, will excite a double interest in the perusal of these letters. The works of M. Roland, in three volumes, octavo, are also about to be published.

Manuel du Voyageur, &c. The Traveller's Manual, or a Collection of Dialogues, Letters, &c. followed by a descriptive Itinerary, for the Use of the French in Germany, and of the Germans in France, by Madame de Genlis, 8vo. —An useful companion.

Voyages dans les deux Siciles, &c. Travels in the two Sicilies, &c. This is a translation of Spallanzani's Travels. We have noticed it only for the sake of the notes. M. Faujas de St. Fond sometimes coincides with and supports, sometimes differs from Spallanzani. The chief difference consists in this point: the French writer thinks that he perceives extinguished volcanoes in every part: the Italian naturalist considers them as less frequent than has been supposed. The notes are in general valuable.

Voyage sentimental en Suisse. A sentimental Journey into Switzerland, by Ch. Haws, junior.—This is an imitation of Sterne, not without merit.

Le Conservateur, &c. The Preserver, or a Collection of choice Morsels of History, Politics, Literature, and Philosophy, for the most part now first published; drawn from the Port-Folios of François de Neufchateau, 2 vols. 8vo.— These volumes are replete with curious and interesting matter.

Mélanges, &c. Miscellanies by the author of Swiss Anecdotes.—A decent work.

Œuvres Posthumes de Florian, &c. The Posthumous Works of Florian, containing Rosalba, a Sicilian Novel, various unpublished Fables, and the Poem of William Tell, with

the Life of the Author, 18mo.—Relics of a pleasing though feeble writer.

Eloge de Montaigne, &c. The Eulogy of Montaigne, by Mariette Bourdie-Viot.—Old Montaigne would have been delighted with this effort of a lady in his praise, and would certainly have abandoned his cat to have diverted himself with her.

Pensées d'un Republicain, &c. Thoughts of a Republican in his swaddling Clothes, accompanied with gallant Poems, by Monget.

Œuvres de Condillac, &c. The Works of Condillac, revised and augmented by the author, &c. 23 vols. 8vo.—The reputation of Condillac will render this collection of his works acceptable to his admirers.

Œuvres de Bacon, &c. The Works of Sir Francis Bacon, translated by La Salle, with Notes, 3 vols. 8vo.—Though we rarely mention translations in our retrospect we cannot pass over this recent tribute to the memory of the great Bacon. But when we see the history of Henry VII. mentioned among the works which are to be translated, and the excellent essays omitted, we are surprised at the translator's want of judgment.

Les Soirées Littéraires, &c. Literary Evenings, &c. by Coupe, vol. XVII.—This volume chiefly contains translations from the modern Latin poets, and accounts of the Flemish and Dutch authors.

Quelques Considérations, &c. Some Considerations on Social Organisation in general, and particularly on the New Constitution; by Cabani.—The author enters into so warm a panegyric on Buonaparte's revolution, that he is probably a candidate for a place.

L'Art Epistolaire, &c. The Epistolary Art, or Dialogues on the Manner of writing Letters, 3 vols. 18mo.—A performance of some utility.

Le Nouveau Monde, &c. The New World, or Christopher Colon (Columbus), a poem; by Lessuière; a new edition, greatly altered and corrected, 2 vols. 8vo.—A long and dull production.

Quelques Fables, &c. Some Fables by Deville.—An insipid addition to the numerous works which had before appeared in an insipid province of poetry. La Fontaine lent every possible advantage to fable-writing; yet his fables are little read, while his tales are in the hands of all. We are contented with his *naïveté*, and shall wait with patience till some beasts shall write fables in return.

Poësie, &c. Poems by Vassielie, &c. 12mo.—Fit for a magazine.

La Dunciade, &c. The Dunciad, a poem; a new edition, augmented by the author; followed by various pieces which evince the occasion of this edition.—Palissot, the

author of this poem, has enlisted in his Dunciad the horrible names of Marat and Robespierre. Certain it is, that folly and wickedness are intimately allied; but satire and comedy ought to attack vices, not crimes.

Imitations en Vers François, &c. Imitations in French Verse of the Odes of Anacreon, with several other Poems, by St. Juste, 18mo.—The poetry in this volume is praised by some of the French critics.

La Bataille d'Herman, &c. The Battle of Herman, a bardic Poem, by Klopstock, 8vo.—A well-written piece, approaching to the nature of the Greek tragedy.

Nouveau Dictionnaire Bibliographique, &c. A new bibliographical Dictionary, or an Essay on universal Bibliography, containing an Account of the best Works of all Kinds which have appeared in France or other Countries in ancient or modern Times, by Desessarts, 8vo.—An useful introduction to the formation of a library.

Mémoires, &c. Memoirs of the Actress Dumesnil, 8vo.—We here find some curious theatrical anecdotes; and the work is a proper companion to the Memoirs of Clairon, which, in some particulars, it corrects.

Essai sur l'Art Oratoire, &c. An Essay on the Art of Oratory, by Citizen Droz.—Among the modern authors Marmontel and Blair are the chief objects of reference in this work. It is to be regretted that the author

"Is *not* himself the great sublime he draws."

Théatre de Kotzebue, &c. The Theatre of Kotzebue, translated from the German by Weiss and Jauffret. 8vo.—Of this translation several volumes have appeared; and we may observe, that it is a better plan to translate the whole theatre of Kotzebue than to select without taste a few detached plays.

Théatre de Schiller, &c. The Theatre of Schiller, translated from the German; by Lamartillière.—This volume contains the Conspiracy of Fiesco, Love and Intrigue, and Don Carlos. As the play of the Robbers had before been translated into French, its place is supplied by Abelino, a piece singular in its subject and of an original texture.

Zénobie, &c. Zenobia, or the Heroine of Armenia.—This novel is built upon a passage in Tacitus. The name is ill chosen, as it unavoidably excites in the reader the memory of the great Zenobia, queen of Palmyra.

Les Chevaliers du Lion. The Knights of the Lion, a tale of chivalry of the twelfth century, imitated from the German, by M. R. de St. Ch. 4 vols. 8vo.—A tale with which many readers will be pleased.

Edouard et Arabelle, &c. Edward and Arabella, or the Pupil of Innocence and Love; a work drawn from the secret memoirs of two English families, by Defauge, 2 vols. 12mo.—This only adds one to the number of insipid novels.

Eugenio et Virginie, &c. 2 vols. 12mo.—This deserves to be excepted from the herd of modern French novels.

Praxile;—a romance on the model of the Ethiopics of Heliodorus.

Fréderic, par J. F. 3 vols. 12mo.—A novel which displays, in various parts, a spirit of philosophical reflexion.

Le Château Noir, &c. The Black Castle, or the Sufferings of the Young Ophelia, 12mo.—A work not unworthy of the attention of novel readers.

Christine, &c. Christina and Sigefroi, or the Triumph of Love, by B. C.—A mixture of history and fiction.

Le Triomphe de l'Amour et de l'Amitié, &c. The Triumph of Love and Friendship, or Letters of Adeline de Rainsy and Sainval, 2 vols.—F. Pagès is the author of this novel, which does not rise above mediocrity.

Les Foiblesses, &c. The Weaknesses of a great Man, or the Life and Adventures of the Count de Lavagna, by F. Pagès, 4 vols.—This is superior to the preceding performance in interest and merit.

Les jolies Péchés, &c. The pretty little Sins of a Milliner, by Nougaret, 18mo.—An entertaining novel.

Illyrine, &c. Illyrine, or the Shores of Inexperience, by J. de Morency, 3 vols. 8vo. This is the production of a lady, who has thought proper to tell her own true story, instead of spinning out a threadbare novel.

Voyage autour du Palais Egalité, &c. A Journey round the Palace Equality, 18mo.—A feeble imitation of Sterne, but not destitute of good points.

Brick Bolding, ou qu'est ce que la Vie? &c. Brick Bolding, or what is Life? An Anglo-Franco-Italian Novel, 3 vols. 12mo.—The hero of this volume is an Englishman, and his amorous adventures are recounted with some spirit.

Irma, &c. or the Misfortunes of a Young Orphan, 2 vols. 12mo.—An allegorical novel.

Bievriana, or Jests of Monf. de Bievre, 18mo.—These trifles are ascribed to the author of the *Seducteur*: they abound with *calembourgs*, and other false pieces of wit.

Les Délices de la Solitude, &c. The Delights of Solitude, derived from the Study and Contemplation of Nature, by Canolle, 2 vols. 12mo.—Written with laudable intentions to induce a preference of rural life.

HOLLAND.

Berichten, &c. Accounts of the Missions to Heathen Countries by the Community of the Evangelical Brethren; four Numbers, 8vo. Amsterdam.—The first of these missions was attempted in the year 1734, when three of the brethren

were ſent to Lapland, and a few others to Georgia in North America. The former met with no ſucceſs, although new attempts were ſoon after made in the Norwegian and Swediſh parts of Lapland; while the latter eſtabliſhed themſelves on the iſland of Irene formed by the river Savanna, where they erected a ſchool-houſe for the children of the Indians, who frequented it together with their king Tomo-Tſhatſhki, in order to learn, as they termed it, the *great word*. This colony made tolerable progreſs, till the war with Spain, in 1739, induced the Dutch miſſionaries to reſort to Pennſylvania, where they formed new colonies at Bethlehem, Nazareth, and other places. In 1775 the miſſionaries returned to Georgia, but were not encouraged by the Indians. After meeting with various ſucceſs from the year 1735, at Surinam; from 1738, at Berbice and other places; the congregation of the baptiſed negroes at Paramaribo received an acceſſion of forty members in the years 1796 and 1797; the Indian congregation at Hoop conſiſted of 231 members; that of the Hottentots at Bavianſkloof of 139 adults and above 200 children viſiting the ſchool; the different congregations in Grönland, in 1796, amounted to 975 perſons; the number of baptiſed Eſquimaux amounted, in 1796, to 193 perſons; and the congregations in the Weſt Indies are in a more flouriſhing ſtate. A new church has been conſecrated at Antigua, and, from Eaſter 1795 to 1796, there have been baptiſed 276 adults, and 285 additional communicants. During the ſame period 185 perſons were baptiſed at St. Chriſtopher's, and 77 admitted to receive the ſacrament. Since the firſt miſſionaries repaired to that iſland, a period of ſeven years and a half, the converts to Chriſtianity have been 1624 in number. Many negroes are alſo baptiſed every year in the iſlands of St. Thomas, Santa Cruz, and St. John: in North America, alſo, there is a continued increaſe of the Indian congregations profeſſing the Chriſtian religion.

GERMANY.

Wie nützt Man am beſten den Geiſt des Zeitalters? How can the Spirit of the Age be turned to the beſt Advantage? A philoſophic, hiſtorical Treatiſe; by I. L. Ewald; 8vo. Bremen.—This eſſay conſiſts of three lectures read by the celebrated author to the Society of the Bremen Muſeum. In the firſt of theſe, he unfolds the queſtions, How is the ſpirit of the age determined? to what objects does it extend its influence? and by what means is a correct knowledge of it to be acquired? He is too rapid in the diſcuſſion of theſe important queſtions, and conſequently draws premature concluſions. Thus he maintains, that in thoſe events which have the ſtrongeſt tendency to corrupt the ſpirit of the age, we muſt ſearch

for the germ of its improvement. The highest degree of luxury is, according to him, productive of simplicity of manners; the highest degree of despotism leads to the establishment of liberty. When the human mind has deviated from the path of reason in the most striking and deplorable manner, it is then most easily reduced to its proper career. Providence has wisely conjoined every physical and moral evil with its remedy. We shall only observe, that truth is mingled with fallacy in these abrupt inferences.—In the second lecture, M. Ewald discusses the question, How can we most effectually guard against the bad consequences attendant on the spirit of the age, and in what manner can we apply its beneficial tendency? This inquiry leads him to the more general proposition which forms the subject of the third lecture, viz. How may the spirit of the present age be converted to the most useful purposes?—Throughout the work we discover a cool, manly, and truly philosophical method of conducting such inquiries.

Ueber die Existenz der Principien, &c. A Treatise on the Existence of Principles of a pure disinterested Benevolence in Man; being an answer to a Prize-Question proposed by the Teylerian Society; by Paulus van Hemmert, late professor, &c. Translated from the Dutch; with the addition of a preface, and a short historical account of the vicissitudes which the Kantian philosophy has experienced in Holland, by T. W. Dethmar, pastor at Hueth; 8vo. Dortmund.—The prize-question proposed by the Teylerian Society, for the year 1798, was the following:—"Is there no other principle of action in man than self-love; and can every inclination, every propensity that he feels, be reduced to that source? Or is he likewise endued with morally good principles, which cannot be explained from selfish motives, and deserve to be called altogether disinterested?" As the society had adjudged the prize to an essay written by M. Brower, M. van Hemmert was induced to lay his attempt before the public. It is impossible to read this elegant, perspicuous, and practical dissertation, without feeling a high degree of respect for its author, who combines the talents of a pleasing moral writer with a philosophic genius.—From the preface of Mr. Dethmar we learn, that Kant's philosophy was taught in none of the Dutch schools before the year 1798, except that of Amsterdam, where it was inculcated by Heumann; and that most of the philosophers who had formerly waged war against it, now began to be silent, or even recommended the study of Kant's works to their pupils. The principal teachers and promoters of this philosophy in Holland, besides Van Hemmert, Heumann, and Dethmar, are the following;—Chaudoir, in his "Oratio de Momentis Philosophiæ Kantianæ;" Servaas, a physician; and Simonides, a clergyman of great respectability.

Fichte's Appellation gegen die Anklage des Atheismus. Fichte's Appeal against the Accusation of Atheism, 8vo. Jena and Leipzig, 1799.—Fichte is a professor of the university of Jena, and a writer in the philosophical journal published at that place. In this journal the first and second propositions of the first part for the year 1798 were said to be atheistical; and on this ground the work was condemned by an electoral rescript given at Dresden on the 19th of November in that year. Fichte appeals from this decree; and though he declares himself to be the author of the first proposition, which, he says, is termed atheistical by a well-known atheistical faction, he in a very manly defence proves clearly that the charge of atheism adduced against him is without foundation.—'The consequences to my person (he observes) are entirely indifferent. I know and I feel with true courage that my cause is good; but, as to my person, it is of no consequence. Should I fall in this contest, I came forward too early; and it is the will of God that I should fall. He has more servants, and he will without doubt, in his own good time, give the victory to the cause which is his own.' This is not the language of an atheist; but at the same time we must observe that it is very difficult to understand what the professor means by God and the proofs of his existence. He plainly indeed states the contest between him and his adversaries, who, according to his apprehensions of God, appear to border upon idolatry. 'What they call God, he says, appears to me an idol. My God is a being entirely free from all matter or material ideas—to him therefore I cannot ascribe the sensitive idea of existence, which is the only one possible to me. God is in my opinion plainly and simply the governor of the spiritual world. Their God I deny, and reject him as an abortion of human corruption; but I am not on that account a denier of God. I am the defender of religion. My God they cannot know, nor can they elevate themselves to the idea of him. He is nothing to them; they cannot then deny him, and in that respect are not atheists: but they are without God, and in that respect are atheists. It is however far from my wish to point them out to the world under this odious title. My religion rather teaches me to pity them for preferring what is most trifling to that which is the most high and most noble. This religion teaches me to hope that they will sooner or later discover their lamentable situation, and consider all the days of their lives as lost in comparison of the new and glorious existence which will arise upon them.' In other words, he states the contest to be simply this—'My adversaries and myself live in two different worlds, and speak of two different worlds—they of the material, I of the spiritual: they think only of enjoyment in whatever shape it may exist, I place every thing in pure

duty.' Indeed, the accusation of atheism is ill-founded. Pure theism is the basis of the professor's faith; and he believes firmly in the immortality of the soul. That by a godly life man becomes like God, is his maxim. 'Crucify the flesh with its lusts, be born again, be born of the spirit, become new creatures,' are his precepts. 'Our conversation (he says) is in heaven or spiritual; and a new man lives in me; and this conversation will last when millions of worlds shall have been destroyed.' But in the description of this spiritual life, in the manner of considering the giver of it, he runs into so many strange expressions derived from the new language of German philosophy, that we are not surprised at the ferment excited among his brother professors. They probably have treated him with too much harshness: he looks upon them with too much contempt, and the civil power has given a greater dignity to the cause than it deserves.

Klugheits Lehre, &c. Doctrine of Prudence, practically treated, in Academical Lectures, by Von Seibt, 2 vols. 8vo.—The author's principal aim in these lectures is directed to the instruction of those young students who are on the eve of entering the world; to prepare them for the discharge of the more active duties of life, and to furnish them with some practical knowledge of men and manners. His style is, in general, agreeable and entertaining; though his language is often diffuse, his periods parenthetical and abounding with provincial phrases. Many anecdotes and appropriate passages, extracted from ancient and modern authors, are interspersed throughout the work.

Der Gesellschaft Naturforschender Freunde, &c. New Essays by the Society of Natural History at Berlin, vol. I. II.—This collection promises to be a valuable addition to the library of the natural historian; and we wish that some of the more important essays may be published in an English dress. Eloges of deceased members are prefixed to the second volume; and we are sorry to find in the list the names of Gren, Hedwig, Forster, and Wildenham. In this place we have not even room to transcribe the titles of the essays. Too great a share of attention seems to be paid to mineralogy; and some of the least important articles occur in this department. The most valuable of the mineralogical papers are counsellor Stutz' account of the gold and silver mines in Transylvania, designed as a supplement to baron Born's travels; M. Bendheim's account of copper ores found in Siberia and Dauria; M. Wildenham's geological observations on some parts of the mountains of Schwartzwald; and Karsten's account of the stratum of pit-coal in the Lingen territory. In botany we distinguish M. Wildenow's description of some rare plants: M. Schwartz has added two new species to Dr. Smith's genus

of vittaria from St. Mauritius and India ; and M. Haffenfratz prefers the fpecies of acer as the moft eligible plants for procuring fugar, when that from the fugar-cane cannot be obtained.

Philofophia, &c. The New Botanical Philofophy, by Profeffor Link, of Roftock. Gottingen.—This is only an introduction to the phyfiology of plants. The firft chapter treats of their general appearance and figure; the fecond of their trunks and roots, which lead M. Link to point out the different kinds of roots, their duration, as annual, biennial, or perennial, and the changes to which they are fubject. The third, divided into three fections, relates to their ftalks, branches, and peduncles ; the fourth to the leaves and buds ; the fifth and fixth to the flowers, the feeds, and all their parts. This laft is an excellent abridgement of Gaertner's work, ' De Fructibus et Seminibus Plantarum.' The feventh chapter relates to the down, the hairs, the glands, and every thing on the furface of plants. The eighth explains the changes in the forms of vegetables ; and the laft chapter of this firft part treats of the general phyfiology of vegetable bodies. The fecond part contains an account of the different colours obferved on each part of a plant ; of the tafte, the virtues, the fmell, the irritability, the circulating and the excrementitious fluids of vegetables. The third treats of fyftematic arrangement of genera and of fpecies. This new botanical philofophy has been well received on the continent, as it contains the different facts of this pleafing but intricate fcience brought together with great clearnefs and precifion.

Filicum Genera et Species, &c. The Genera and Species of Ferns, newly arranged by Hedwig, and analytically defcribed, with plates, folio, Leipzig.—Hedwig's Syftem we have often noticed ; and we have only to add that it is now finifhed, and illuftrated with accuracy and elegance.

Hortus Herenhufanus, &c. Wendeland's Defcription of the Plants in the Garden of Herenhaufen, folio, Hanover.—It is fufficient to announce the publication of the Hortus Herenhufanus. The firft fafciculus promifes well : we fhall continue to mark its progrefs.

Neues Mineralogifches Worterbuch, &c. A New Dictionary of Mineralogy, containing all the words in the German, Latin, French, Italian, Swedifh, Danifh, Ruffian, and Hungarian languages, relative to mining and mineralogy, with an explanation of their real meaning according to the new nomenclature of Werner, by Fr. Amb. Reufs.—We need only announce this dictionary ; its utility is evident. It is in reality a Latin-German Dictionary. The names in the other languages are fewer and lefs complete. Two tables of

ſimple and compound foſſils, according to the laſt ſyſtem of M. Werner, precede.

Icones Plantarum Medicinalium, &c. Repreſentations of Medicinal Plants, by Plenk, 6 vols. folio. Vienna.—This work has been ſlow in its progreſs, but very beautiful and accurate in its execution. The high character of the author precludes every ſuſpicion of negligence or error. Six hundred plants are figured and deſcribed; and the work, begun in 1788, can ſcarcely be ſaid to be yet complete.

Botanica Pharmaceutica, &c. A Pharmaceutico-botanical Diſplay of various Plants, by Happe, folio. Berlin.—This, though a leſs ſplendid and leſs extenſive work than the preceding, merits much praiſe. The figures are executed with delicacy, and coloured with accuracy. Fifty-ſeven faſciculi have been publiſhed.

Pharmacopœia Boruſſica. The Pruſſian Pharmacopœia, 4to. Berlin.—This work has always been eſteemed, as accurately chemical; but, in the many years that elapſed from the laſt publication, much was required both in addition and improvement. M. Klaproth and Formey have touched the original with a delicate hand; but what they have done claims attention.

Tabulæ Anatomicæ, &c. Anatomical Tables, by Loder, folio. Weimar.—Of M. Loder's plates we intend to ſpeak more at large. At preſent we only announce the publication of ſix numbers of the work.

Deſcriptio Arteriarum Corporis Humani, &c. Murray's Tables of the Arteries of the Human Body. 4to. Leipzig.—Dr. Murray's tables contain only the ſubſtance of his former diſſertation; but they are more convenient for reference.

Tabulæ Embryonum Humanorum, &c. Sömmering's Tables of the Human Fœtus, folio. Franckfort.—The merit of M. Sömmering in the departments of anatomy and phyſiology is ſufficiently known, to recommend theſe tables without any farther comment. Theſe two plates, containing twenty figures from the firſt period to the ſeventh month, are executed with great delicacy and accuracy; and the attempt is the more commendable, as we have few regular ſeries of human embryos except thoſe in Dr. Hunter's great work, where this was not the chief object. We formerly mentioned M. Sömmering's deſcription of the female ſkeleton.

Verſuch einer Syſtematiſchen Erdbeſchreibung, &c. An Attempt towards a ſyſtematic Deſcription of the remoteſt Parts of the Globe; Africa, Aſia, America, and South-India; by Profeſſor Bruns; 6 vols. 8vo. Nürnberg.—Although the Germans poſſeſs many geographical collections which are preferable to the preſent in point of conciſeneſs, we are of opinion that the learned profeſſor has uncommon merit in this

elaborate work, which is diligently and carefully digested from the best and latest authorities of the most respectable travellers and other geographers, whose names are in every instance mentioned as vouchers. In describing the northern states of Africa, Dr. B. has principally quoted our countryman Shaw; but we regret that he has not availed himself of the interesting accounts communicated to the world by Mr. Mungo Park, and other travellers employed by the Society for exploring the interior of Africa. The historical part of this work is scanty and deficient: the author has been more successful in describing the prevailing manners and customs of the inhabitants. Several countries of Africa have been either entirely omitted, for instance the kingdom of Barka, or are imperfectly described, such as the state of Tripoli, which however has not been sufficiently attended to by any modern traveller. On the whole, it is to be wished that Dr. B. may, in a future edition, endeavour to improve his style, as well as correct those historical data, especially relative to population and extent of country, which he has often indiscriminately adopted from ancient writers, without comparing them with the more accurate statements given by modern geographers.

Handbuch, &c. A Manual of Universal History, comprehending the Nations of Ancient Times; from the Beginning of Governments to the Close of the Roman Republic; by D. G. J. Hübler; Vol. II. 8vo. Freyberg.—The author of this work has carefully and judiciously arranged his materials, principally from the authorities of Gatterer, whose historical compendium is highly esteemed: he has also availed himself of the labours of Guthrie, Gray, Goldsmith, and others, in particular branches of history. The present volume extends to the reign of Alexander the Macedonian; and, as it is the writer's intention to conclude with that period when Rome ceased to be a republic, we may expect two other parts; so that the whole work will consist of four volumes.

Neue Ansichten von Dresden. New Views of Dresden, for the Use of Travellers; by a Traveller; 8vo. Leipzig.—In this topographical description of the city of Dresden, we unexpectedly met with an historical inquiry into its *origin*, which composes the first section of the work: more to the purpose is the next section, in which the author gives a general account of this remarkable and polished town; we must confess that the whole work contains too many trivial remarks interspersed among the more interesting notices; just censures clothed in artificial language, as a substitute for genuine wit; accurate representations of the manners of its inhabitants, but delivered in bombastic phraseology, and periods too laboured to please. These peculiarities of style form a striking contrast with the promising introduction to every chapter. We may, however,

recommend this publication to travellers as an amusing and useful guide; though it is in many respects inferior to Nicolai's description of Berlin, or Leonardi's latest account of Leipzig.

Deutsche Kunstblätter, &c. Accounts of the Imitative Arts in Germany, for the Year 1799; with Plates and Drawings. 8vo. in Monthly Numbers. Dresden.—It appears to be the object of this work to encourage young German artists, and improve their productions, by mutual and more extensive communication, because their performances are less esteemed than those of foreigners. Beside the designs and descriptions of works of merit, whether in mechanics or the fine arts, the editors insert original essays, and extracts from books, relative to those subjects, biographical accounts of native artists, remarks on their principal works, &c.

Skizzen, Gedanken-Entwürfe, &c. Sketches, ideal Plans, and Drawings, relative to the Imitative Arts; by A. Breysig, Professor, &c. Numb. I. 8vo. with a Plate. Magdeburg.—The first essay here given, "On the utility and necessity of the art of drawing," is a hasty and defective production; the second, however, "On the construction, machinery and painting of a theatre," is written with more judgement and perspicuity, though Mr. Breysig has not exhausted the subject. From the third article we learn that the king of Prussia, in the year 1796, granted a royal charter to the provincial School of Arts at Magdeburg, which formerly was a private institution; while he placed it under the superintendance of the Royal Academy of the Arts and Mechanical Sciences of Berlin, and assigned to the former an annual revenue. There are two professors appointed with salaries, namely, M. Breysig and M. Fürste, who give public lectures four times a week. We also find in this journal accounts of exhibitions and artists, of pictures for sale, prices of the earthen-ware manufactured by Wagner, resembling, though not equal to, that of Mr. Wedgwood, &c.

Ueber meinen Aufenthalt in Wien, &c. On his Residence at Vienna, and Dismissal from the Office solicited by himself; by A. von Kotzebue; with four Documents annexed, for the Refutation of the libellous Charges exhibited against the Author in the Chronological Repository (*Archiv der Zeit*) of Berlin, for the Month of April, 1799, 8vo. Leipzig.—In this controversial pamphlet, the celebrated Kotzebue very spiritedly, and we think successfully, defends himself against the foul aspersions of an anonymous correspondent, inserted in the journal above-mentioned; and although we are no admirers of Kotzebue's moral system in general, or of his whining sentimental effusions which form the tinsel work of his dramatic compositions, yet we cannot, in this instance, deny him the

merit of having written an able and conclusive apology.—To extenuate the charge of ingratitude and contempt adduced against him by his calumniating adversary, the author gives the following picture of Vienna, the sincerity of which remains to be ascertained.—' Perhaps I shall never again visit Vienna; but the favourable reception I have met with in the most respectable houses, the unsolicited hospitality, the manly affection, the refined sociable circles, the artless pleasures, the attic wit, the most exquisite amusements, and the most delicate enjoyments arising from an highly cultivated taste, will ever be sacred to my memory; in short, every where I recognised true morality in the most amiable union with simplicity of manners—that peculiar character of the Austrians. Alas! if this great city were not plagued with dust and journalists, it would be the most charming residence in Europe.' We regret that the author has not furnished us with a dramatic representation of such noble and engaging qualities; and we venture to pronounce that he would not, in that case, have incurred the displeasure of an ingenious female writer on education, or the weighty censure passed on the immoral tendency of his dramas by a respectable prelate.—Kotzebue also, with his usual modesty, informs the world, that the good emperor Francis II. has granted him a pension for life, consisting of one thousand florins, or about one hundred pounds sterling per annum, as a token of the satisfaction derived from his conduct in his capital. It appears however doubtful to us, whether the *moral* part of his plays will be rewarded with equal liberality in England, if ever he should condescend to visit that orthodoxical country."

Der Hyperboreische Esel, oder die heutige Bildung; von A. v. Kotzebue. The Hyperborean Ass, or Modern Education, a Philosophical Comedy for Young Men, in One Act. 8vo. Leipzig, 1799.—The universities of Germany are overrun with a strange pedantic sophistry and unmeaning jargon, miscalled philosophy. To ridicule this abuse of time and learning, a young man who has studied philosophy under Fichte, morality under Schlegel, and history under Schiller, is brought upon the stage. His widowed mother, uncle, and intended bride, are prepared to adore this prodigy of learning; and a brother who had lived in the country, employed in rustic sports and business, is not a little ashamed of his own ignorance. But the mother is almost distracted at the first conversation with her learned son, as all his answers are taken literally from the books of the new German school, and she finds him a wretch without feeling, without virtue, full of pride, folly, and atheism. The baron his uncle afterwards converses with him, and is astonished and shocked when the nephew denies his existence. The intended bride cannot reconcile to herself his

jests upon chastity, or his proposition that marriage is mere concubinage, and that marriage *à quatre* would be an improvement. The rustic brother has time only to make excuses for going away to meet the prince, who was to hunt in the uncle's woods, where he fortunately defended the prince against an attack of a wild boar. The prince now appears, and converses with the young pedant, whom he finds incapable of filling any office in his dominions, and fit only for an hospital of lunatics. The play ends with the appointment of the young rustic to the mastership of the forests, and his acquisition of the fair one who was intended for his brother. The species of ridicule introduced into this play may be useful in Germany; but in England it would be difficult to find a single young gownsman so stupid as to weary his relatives or friends with extracts from college lectures: we are apt in this country to run rather into the contrary extreme. We may add, that the exquisite wit of Aristophanes in his Clouds forms a striking contrast to the plain phlegmatic style of the German dramatist.

SWITZERLAND.

Catalogus Plantarum in Helvetia, &c. A List of Plants growing spontaneously in Switzerland, by Schleicher.—All these plants have been collected and dried, very carefully, by the author. The price of one hundred select species is ten florins; of one hundred packets of seed, carefully selected, eleven florins. The author offers for sale, without yet fixing the price, complete herbaries of all the known plants of Switzerland, contained in the works of Haller, as well as those since discovered, which he will arrange on any system that the purchaser may prefer.

SPAIN.

Among the late effusions of the Spanish press are a considerable number of translations; but the original works of Spanish writers are more entitled to our notice. Literature, we may add, seems now to flourish in Spain beyond the expectations of those who had long witnessed and deplored its decline in that country.

Tratado de las Fuentes, &c. An Essay on Intermittent Springs, and on the Causes of their alternate Flow and Stoppage, 4to.—This treatise is the production of a Benedictine monk of Valladolid. It is not distinguished by any great portion of philosophical *acumen*.

Tratado Completo de Arithmetica, &c. A Complete Treatise on Arithmetic, or a Method of learning to reckon according to true Principles, by J. Gerard.—This publication promises to be very useful.

Memoria fobre los Metodos de hallar la Longitud, &c. A Memoir, by F. Lopez Royo, on the Methods of difcovering the Longitude at Sea by Lunar Obfervations.—This work was printed at the expenfe of his catholic majefty. It is ingenious, though not entirely fatisfactory.

Tratado General, &c. A General Treatife on Watch-making, by Manuel de Cenella e Icoaga.—The mathematical principles of the art of watchmaking are here explained with fkill and judgement.

Curfo Completo de Anatomia, &c. A Complete Courfe of Anatomical Lectures, by the Doctors Bonello and Lacaba. 8vo.—This important work will be completed in five volumes: the fourth has already appeared.

Difertacion, &c. A Phyfico-Medical Differtation on the Poffibility of preventing the Small-Pox.—The plan propofed by the writer of this pamphlet has been pronounced judicious by medical profeffors.

Preceptos, &c. General Rules for the Obftetric Art; by J. V. Paftor.—The directions and remarks which occur in this work are worthy of notice.

Flora Peruviana, &c. The Flora of Peru and Chili, by Ruiz and Pavon, Vol. II.—In this volume above 250 plants are defcribed, the greater part of which were non-defcripts before. The graphic delineations are clear and accurate.

Novarum et variarum Plantarum Horti Regii Botanici Madr. Defcriptionum Decades, &c. Decades of Defcriptions of Plants in the Royal Garden at Madrid, by Ortega.—The feventh and eighth decades are now publifhed; and among the plants mentioned are many which had not been previoufly defcribed.

Compendio, &c. A Compendium of the Remarks of a Political and Philofophic Traveller.—A general guide to thofe who are defirous of peregrination.

El Viagero, &c. The Univerfal Traveller.—This work is not yet finifhed: it is a compilation of fome merit.

Biblioteca, &c. A Catalogue of Arragonian Writers.—F. Lataffa commences this catalogue from the year 1500.

Mugeres, &c. The Lives of illuftrious Spanifh Women, by A. Alvarez.—This work will probably be very copious, as the firft volume brings down the lives only to the time of the emperor Adrian.

Elementos, &c. Elements of the Art of Poetry, by J. C. Lofada.—The principles of this very pleafing art are well developed and explained, on the authority of efteemed critics; and many apposite examples are adduced for the purpofe of illuftration.

A REVIEW

OF

PUBLIC AFFAIRS,

FROM

the Beginning of JANUARY to the End of APRIL, 1800.

GREAT-BRITAIN.

IF we had reaſon to conſider the beginning of the preſent year as the commencement of a new century, we ſhould introduce it with retroſpective remarks on the principal events by which the preceding age was diſtinguiſhed, and on the benefits or diſadvantages which attended the general ſtate of ſociety in that period; and we ſhould alſo be inclined to hazard ſome ſpeculations on the probable changes which the enſuing century may exhibit in the affairs of Europe or of the world, in religion and morals, in the inſtitutions of policy, in the mechanical and refined arts, in order and civiliſation, and in the grand features of diſtinction which elevate the human ſpecies above the brute creation. Reflexions on ſuch topics may be expected by ſome of our readers, perhaps by many; for, in the chronological controverſy which has been lately agitated, the ſupporters of the opinion that we are now in the nineteenth cen-

tury have been numerous and determined *. But, since we conceive (for reasons which it is unnecessary to state, as they must be obvious to the majority of reflecting persons), that the eighteenth centurial division of the Christian æra has not yet been completed, we must postpone our intended observations to the time when propriety and consistency will more forcibly require their appearance.

In the resumption of our historical and political sketch, our attention is first called to parliamentary affairs, particularly to the discussion which took place soon after the re-assembling of the two houses, on the subject of the rejection of Buonaparte's negotiatory overtures. In a royal message, delivered on the 22d of January, a full confidence was expressed, that the answers of our court to the proposals of the chief consul of France would appear to both houses 'to have been conformable to that line of conduct which was required from his majesty on this occasion by his regard to all the most important interests of his dominions.' On the 28th, lord Grenville harangued the peers on the conduct of France, urged the insecurity of any treaty which might be concluded with the present rulers of that unsettled country, and recommended a spirited prosecution of the war, in compliance with the request contained in the message. To the address proposed by the secretary strong objections were made by the duke of Bedford, who wished for an immediate negotiation, and moved an amendment for that purpose. Lord Boringdon endeavoured to refute the duke's arguments; but lord Romney, while he approved the general conduct of the ministers, blamed them for having refused to treat with the enemy. The earls of Carlisle and Caernarvon supported the address; lord Holland opposed it. The earl of Liverpool descanted on the flourishing state of this country, and argued, that, by entering at this time into a negotiation, we should risque the loss of the great

* The arguments of these chronologists are summed up by the poet-laureat, in the preface to his *premature* 'Carmen Seculare.' Some other writer, at the beginning of the year 1801, may produce a new poem with the same title, and easily refute allegations so erroneous.

advantages which we enjoyed. At length, the address was voted without alteration. This message, on account of the alleged indisposition of Mr. Pitt, was not taken into consideration by the commons before the 3d of February; and Mr. Dundas then took the lead in the debate. He traced the misconduct of the French from the beginning of the war to the present year, and particularly dwelt on the enormities of which Buonaparte had been guilty. With such a government, and such a leader, he said, no treaty would be secure; and, even if a peace should be concluded, his majesty would find it necessary to keep up the same forces which were now embodied. On this point, however, we may observe, that a considerable force might be necessary, but not so great an army or navy as actual war requires.—The proposition for an address of acquiescence was counter-acted with spirit by Mr. Whitbread, and defended with pertness by Mr. Canning. After a speech from Mr. Erskine in favour of a negotiation, Mr. Pitt entered into an elaborate vindication of the part which the British court had taken in the war. Far from having provoked it, he said, the cabinet had acted in a manner totally opposite to, at least widely different from, that conduct which would have been pursued by men who were desirous of a pretext for war; but no caution, he added, had proved sufficient to secure us against the aggression of the French, whose eagerness for war seemed to be proportioned to our desire of remaining at peace. He proceeded to trace their successive encroachments on the rights of other nations, and their gross violations of honour and justice; and he represented their system in a light so formidable, that it was the duty and interest of every other community to prevent its propagation and establishment. He contended, that Buonaparte was not sincere in his professions of peace, and that, by trusting to his declarations, we should only expose ourselves to insult and perfidy, to danger and disgrace. Mr. Fox again appeared as the friend of peace, which, he said, might as well be obtained in the present circumstances of France as it had been at any time while that country was governed by the Bourbon family. He

ridiculed the folly and blindnefs of thofe politicians who could only fee oppreffion and injuftice under the fway of the republican rulers of France, not under the old *régime*, and who amufed themfelves with the effufion of invectives againft Buonaparte and his revolutionary predeceffors, without confidering that Souworoff, though applauded as a Chriftian hero, was not more humane than the invader of Egypt, and that the zealous friends of focial order were by no means pure or immaculate in their conduct. He deprecated the continuance of a war which could only gratify the bafeft and moft degrading paffions, and which fwelled, to no fpecific purpofe, the black catalogue of human miferies. On a divifion, the addrefs was voted by a majority of 201. The fame fubject was again difcuffed on the 7th, when 110,000 feamen and marines were demanded for the current year: but there was no novelty in the arguments adduced.

The ill fuccefs of the expedition to Holland alfo gave rife to debates. Mr. Sheridan called that enterprife a 'lavifh and fruitlefs wafte of treafure and of life;' and moved that an inquiry fhould be inftituted into the caufes of its failure. Mr. Dundas juftified the plan and the management of it; and, while he lamented that it had not been fo fortunate as its projectors wifhed, he affirmed that the nation was 'a confiderable gainer' by it. Lord Holland exhorted the peers to enter into a fimilar inquiry; but the houfe deemed it both unneceffary and improper.

The fcarcity of corn was another fubject of difcuffion; and a bill was at length enacted for prohibiting the fale of bread before the expiration of twenty-four hours from the time of baking it. This ftatute has had fome effect in diminifhing the confumption of bread; but it has not produced the relief which was expected from it.

After fome debates, which do not require fpecification in our general furvey, the budget was opened on the 24th of February. The fupply which the minifter of finance deemed requifite for the charges of the year, nearly amounted to thirty-nine millions and a half. It was thus divided:

Navy - - - - - - -	£. 13,619 000
Army - - - - - -	11,350,000
Ordnance - - - - - - -	1,695,000
Miscellaneous services - - - -	750,000
Interest due to the bank - - - -	816,000
Deficiency of the ways and means of 1799 -	447,000
——— ——— duties on land and malt -	250,000
Exchequer Bills issued on income-tax - -	2,506,000
Bills issued on other taxes - - - -	79,000
——— ——— on the vote of credit of the last year	1,914,000
Subsidies to German princes - - -	2,500,000
Expense of Russian troops - - - -	500,000
Towards the reduction of the public debt - -	200,000
Probable contingencies - - -	1,800,000
	£. 39,426,000

In detailing the means of raising this supply, Mr. Pitt estimated the income-tax at £. 5,300,000, after the deduction of interest payable for the borrowed sum of £. 13,500,000; but he thought it highly probable that it would produce a greater sum in the course of this year than it had in the last, as it was his intention to propose some alterations calculated to augment its efficacy. He had negotiated a loan of £. 18,500,000; but the assignment of £. 1,700,000 out of the income-tax to the payment of a part of the interest rendered £. 313,000 sufficient for the remainder. This demand was answered by a new duty, at the rate of 5 *per cent.* on all kinds of tea sold at 2*s.* 6*d.* for each pound, and by a small augmentation of the duties on rum and brandy. The *ways and means* were at length adjusted in the following manner:

Malt, sugar, and tobacco - - - -	£. 2,750,000
Exports and imports - - - -	1,250,000
Lottery - - - - -	200,000
Tax on income - - - - -	5,300,000
Renewal of the charter of the bank - -	3,000,000
Vote of credit - - - - -	3,000,000
Surplus of the consolidated fund - -	5,500,000
Loan - - - - - - -	18,500,000
	£. 39,500,000

We ſhall now paſs over ſome parliamentary proceedings of inferior moment, that we may enter upon the diſcuſſion of the projected union between Great-Britain and Ireland. To preſerve a continuity of ſtatement and remark on this ſubject, we will transfer, to this part of our ſurvey, our account of the meaſures purſued in Ireland, which, by being related under a diſtinct head, would be leſs connected than the reader's convenience would require them to be, particularly as the debates on the articles in England would then be prior in arrangement to thoſe diſcuſſions in Ireland which really preceded.

At the meeting of the Hibernian parliament, on the 15th of January, the two parties tried their ſtrength in a diviſion which followed the debate on a motion of Sir Laurence Parſons, requeſting that the commons would, in their addreſs to the king, declare their diſapprobation of an incorporative union. The number of thoſe who voted for this propoſition did not exceed ninety-ſix, while one hundred and thirty-eight members appeared as the friends of the union. On the 5th of February, the grand ſcheme was communicated to the houſe in regular detail, by lord Caſtlereagh, who, after a diſplay of the general principle of the meaſure, propoſed eight articles as the foundations upon which it might be completed with advantage to both kingdoms. The firſt imported, that, on the 1ſt of January, 1801, the two realms ſhould become 'the united kingdom of Great-Britain and Ireland;' the ſecond provided, that the ſucceſſion to the crown ſhould remain on it's preſent baſis; and in the third it was ſtipulated that the united kingdom ſhould be repreſented in one parliament. The fourth article fixed at thirty-two the number of peers who ſhould repreſent Ireland in the imperial parliament, and the number of commoners at one hundred. By the fifth, the churches of England and of Ireland were united into one church: the ſixth provided for a fair proportion of commercial privileges: the ſeventh left to each kingdom the ſeparate diſcharge of its public debt already incurred, and directed that, for twenty years from the union, the national expenſe ſhould be defrayed in the proportion of fifteen parts

for Great-Britain and two parts for Ireland; and by the eighth it was ordered that the laws and courts, both civil and ecclesiastical, should remain as they were now established in each kingdom, subject however, to such alterations as the united legislature might deem expedient. His lordship exerted his talents with considerable effect in the support of these propositions. With regard to the parliamentary representation, he contended that the proposed number of Irish legislators ought to satisfy every reasonable man, as it might be deemed a just proportion, under the combined view of the respective population and future contributions of Great-Britain and Ireland. As many boroughs would be disfranchised by the new regulations, it would be proper, he said, to make compensation to such individuals as might be injured by the loss of their prescriptive privileges. By the new arrangements, he added, the question of parliamentary reform would be superseded, as the present plan was 'a reform of the most popular kind.'—Adverting to the affairs of the church, a frequent subject of acrimonious contest, he expressed his conviction of the insecurity of that of Ireland, if it should continue separate from the English establishment; but, in the event of an union, he had no doubt of the permanence of the present ecclesiastical system, founded on the protestant ascendency. The Hibernian catholics, who, trusting to their great superiority of number, were continually urging claims against the minority, would be checked in their forwardness and confidence, and would less evince their jealousy and distrust; and their pretensions would be temperately discussed by an imperial parliament, at a time when local circumstances would cease to irritate and inflame.—Proceeding to topics of trade, the speaker observed that the circumstances of the two countries did not admit a complete incorporation of commercial interests, because some of the Irish manufactures were not sufficiently advanced to prosper without protecting duties, and the disparity of the burthens borne by the British manufactures, in consequence of a greater share of taxation, rendered it impracticable to adjust this part of the system on any other

principle than that of a full freedom of export between the countries.—He afterwards supported the propriety of the financial system which had been framed by the projectors of the union. This part of the arrangement, he said, was more beneficial to Ireland than to Great-Britain; but he did not wish it to be thought that the pecuniary advantage was intended as a compensation to the former realm for the loss of her honour or her interests. The offer was on the broad principle of a fair mutual agreement. It was highly desirable that the two kingdoms should be so completely incorporated as not to have distinct revenues; but, in the present circumstances of both realms, this point could not be satisfactorily adjusted. It was therefore expedient to select a criterion of relative ability, by which the separate contributions might be regulated. Having compared the exports and imports of Ireland with those of Great-Britain, and the excised articles of consumption in one kingdom with those of the other, for the last three years, his lordship estimated the ratio of ability as one to seven and a half; and, to show the operation of this proportion, he stated the respective expenditures of the two countries in the last year, and compared that of Ireland with what it would have been according to the alleged ratio, so as to prove that nearly a million sterling would have been saved by the western realm. Another favour to Ireland would be a participation of proprietary right in the territorial revenue of Britain, whence she would derive two fifteenths of the sum annually paid by the East-India company.

This scheme met with strong opposition from various speakers, many of whom seem to have been actuated by honourable and patriotic principles, while others may be supposed to have been inflamed by a spirit of faction. Mr. Grattan was one of the warmest opposers of the measure in the house of commons; and his vehement reprobation of it exposed him to an attack from Mr. Corry, the chancellor of the exchequer, whom he answered in terms so bitter and so offensive, that a challenge was the consequence. Mr. Corry was wounded in the duel which ensued; but his antagonist received no injury.

Among the peers, the marquis of Downshire was one of the most determined anti-unionists. Though not the most eloquent of orators, he delivered a long speech against the scheme; but he could not influence his hearers to a rejection of it. The most interesting debates which attended its progress were, as might be expected, in the lower house. On the 13th of March, Sir John Parnell, wishing to have the sense of the nation more decisively ascertained than it could be in the present parliament, moved that the king should be requested to dissolve it, and convoke another. Mr. Saurin, a barrister, distinguished himself by his eloquence and spirit in support of the motion, and strongly urged an appeal to the people. The solicitor-general accused him of 'unfurling the bloody flag of rebellion;' but Mr. Egan hinted, that the solicitor had 'unfurled the flag of prostitution and corruption.' The motion was at length exploded by a majority of forty-six. After many debates and some alterations of the articles, the scheme was approved; and an address was voted by the two houses on the 27th of March, informing his majesty of the result of their deliberations.

The British parliament, on the 21st of April, took into consideration the resolutions of the Irish legislature. Lord Holland then condemned the principle of the measure; but lord Grenville vindicated it on the broad basis of general policy. Mr. Pitt entered into a detail of the resolutions; but it will be sufficient for us to state some of his principal remarks. Speaking of the number of representatives of the people proposed by the Irish parliament, he expressed his approbation of this part of the scheme; but, as many of the friends of our constitution might wish to exclude the holders of offices under the crown from the number, he was willing to agree to a limitation in that respect. He mentioned the choice of twenty-eight temporal peers for life, as a provision more congenial with the constitution than the plan pursued in the case of the Scotish peers; and he thought that no material objection could be made to the right of creating peers of Ireland after the union, as the nobility of that country might otherwise be gradually reduced

to too ſmall a number. On the ſubject of the church, he made remarks ſimilar to thoſe of lord Caſtlereagh. Under the head of commerce he obſerved, that, though Ireland would be benefited by the new arrangements, the Britiſh merchants and manufacturers would have little reaſon for jealouſy or complaint. In treating of the revenue, he admitted that no ſecurity would or could be given to Ireland againſt her being taxed in the imperial parliament beyond her fair proportion; but he had full confidence in the equity of the future legiſlature. Having diſcuſſed other points, he concluded with recommendations of a ſcheme which had been oppoſed by inflamed jacobins and by the champions of independence, but had triumphed over all clamour and prejudice, and was ſtrongly ſupported by its intrinſic merits.—Mr. Grey did not conſider the late reſolutions of the Iriſh parliament as the real opinions of the people; and he deemed the meaſure more likely to diſunite and divide than to connect the two nations. Dr. Laurence profeſſed ſimilar ſentiments; Mr. Sheridan hinted that improper means had been practiſed in Ireland to obtain the aſſent of the parliament to the ſcheme; and he did not doubt that it was repugnant to the wiſhes of the generality of the people. Lord Carysfort having denied the latter allegation, Mr. Grey remarked, that, if the nation favoured the union, there would be no danger in appealing to the people by convoking a new parliament; but the miniſter replied, that, by ſuch an appeal, an opportunity of doing eſſential ſervice to both kingdoms might be loſt. We may venture to affirm, however, that the propoſed appeal would be more juſt and conſtitutional than the reference of ſo important a meaſure to the deciſion of a parliament convened before the agitation of the grand queſtion. A motion from Mr. Grey againſt proceeding to the diſcuſſion of the union was rejected by a majority of two hundred and ſix; and the court alſo triumphed in ſubſequent diviſions. When the number of placemen came under conſideration, Mr. Pitt moved that twenty ſhould be allowed: Mr. Grey propoſed ten; but the houſe ſanctioned the former limitation. After warm debates on different articles, the commons adopted the whole plan on the 5th of

May. In the other houſe, it was oppoſed by earl Fitzwilliam, lord King, and other peers; but the oppoſition which it ſuſtained was not of ſufficient weight or importance; and the reſolutions were remitted to Ireland.

Of this great national meaſure we have, in general, expreſſed our approbation. It may reaſonably be expected, that both countries will derive benefit from the ſcheme, though not in an equal degree; for Ireland, from its former ſtate of ſtriking inferiority, may ſoon be nearly on a par with Great-Britain, while the latter will give rather than receive wealth, ſplendor, and proſperity. The ſtrength of the whole empire will indiſputably be augmented; the machinations of domeſtic foes will more eaſily be baffled; and the attempts of foreign enemies will more effectually be repelled. But, amidſt this pleaſing proſpect, there is ſome reaſon to apprehend, that the influence of the crown may be conſiderably augmented by the union; and this is a point which merits the attentive conſideration of the friends of the conſtitution. The dread of democracy will render them leſs eager to check that influence; but vigilance and circumſpection are requiſite for the prevention of either extreme.

Leaving the union in this fair train, we proceed to the mention of the moſt remarkable naval incidents which have occurred in the preſent year. The Repulſe, a ſhip of ſixty-four guns, having been detached towards Breſt on a cruiſe, ſtruck on a ſunken rock: the captain and almoſt the whole crew eſcaped to the French coaſt, but could not avoid captivity. A ſubſequent event that merits notice was the ſeiſure of the Danaë by a part of the crew, by whom ſhe was traitorouſly given up to the French, who ſent the crew into confinement. A greater misfortune was the loſs of the Queen Charlotte, a veſſel of one hundred and ten guns, which, on the 17th of March, was ſet on fire by a match kept for ſignal guns. It was the flag-ſhip of vice-admiral lord Keith, who, however, was not then on board, but was a witneſs of the calamity from the ſhore. Above one hundred and fifty men eſcaped from the wreck; but above ſix

hundred and fifty lost their lives in consequence of this melancholy accident.

Many captures of small vessels have attended the cruises of our detached ships; but more important success, in April, rewarded the exertions of the officers and crew of the Leviathan and the Emerald. Two Spanish frigates, laden with quicksilver, were taken after a short but spirited conflict; and eleven mercantile ships, some of which were equipped for war, were captured on the same occasion.

Before we close our summary history of Great Britain for this period, it may be expected that we should take some notice of an attempt which might have proved fatal to our popular sovereign. As soon as he had entered his box at the theatre of Drury-lane, on the 15th of May, a pistol was fired from the pit, apparently at his person. It fortunately missed him; and he took his seat without the least discomposure. The man who had fired (whose name was Hadfield) was immediately dragged into the orchestra, and carried behind the scenes. Being examined by a magistrate, he exhibited some symptoms of insanity; but some of his answers were rational. As he is now in confinement, and will soon undergo a trial, we leave to a jury the decision of his guilt.

Every loyal subject was shocked at this atrocious attempt; and, if it should appear that the offender was not insane, the most humane will not lament the infliction of exemplary punishment upon such a villain. Addresses of congratulation on the king's escape have been presented by both houses of parliament, the university of Oxford, the corporation of London, and other public bodies; and the example, we doubt not, will be quickly followed by all the counties and corporations in the kingdom. In such a case, even the spirit of faction will yield to emotions of loyalty and exultation.

IRELAND.

Having, under the preceding head, traced the progress of the union, and sketched its leading features, we shall here add, that, during the parliamentary discussions, the populace

of Dublin and some other towns manifested an aversion to the union; and petitions were presented against it from many counties: but the opposition to the measure was prevented, by a dread of military interference, from rising to a riotous excess.

FRANCE.

After the late revolution in France, the chief consul took measures for strengthening his power, and for continuing the war with spirit, if the enemies of the republic should not be inclined to enter into a negotiation. That his government, during a foreign war, might not be harassed by internal commotions, he endeavoured to restore peace to the departments in which the royalists continued to be hostile. In some districts, the chiefs readily acquiesced in terms of peace: in others, the leaders risqued several engagements before they submitted. Count Louis de Frotté, by delaying his surrender, exposed himself to the resentment of the republicans; and he was shot at Verneuil with six of his officers. This cruelty struck terror into other chiefs; and tranquillity was in a great measure re-established.

In many acts of the new French government, some clemency has been displayed; particularly in the erasure of a multiplicity of names from the list of emigrants. The usurper seems to be desirous of conciliating and securing the favour of the people; and, notwithstanding his violation of the freedom of the press, and other arbitrary acts, his administration is by no means unpopular. Before his elevation to the *sovereignty* of France (for so we may call the power which he enjoys), he was guilty of many atrocities: let him now endeavour to make some atonement for his rapine and cruelty by governing with mildness and humanity.

While he was waiting the event of his overtures to the emperor for a pacification, he did not neglect to prepare for a renewal of the war. Orders were given for new levies to recruit the weakened armies; and, to furnish money for the preparations, loans were negotiated both in France and Holland.

Before any important conflicts occurred in Italy or in

Germany, a small French squadron sailed from Toulon towards Malta with a body of soldiers on board, to reinforce the garrison of la Valetta, which had undergone so long a blockade. Lord Keith, having received intelligence of the approach of the hostile armament, detached lord Nelson, in February, with several ships, in quest of the enemy. A large armed store-ship was first taken; and the Genereux, of seventy-four guns, afterwards surrendered without resistance. In March, another ship of the line, the Guillaume Tell, was captured in an attempt to escape from Malta.

The endeavours of Buonaparte to produce a negotiation being unsuccessful, the French and their Austrian adversaries opened the campaign in April. On the 6th of that month, three brigades attacked an entrenched post of the French in the Genoese territory, and soon forced it, though it was defended by a numerous artillery. From another strong post the French were dislodged about the same time, and driven to the highest precipice of Monte Ajuto. A third post was also stormed by the Austrians, who, pursuing the fugitives, prepared to make themselves masters of Vado. Alarmed at their approach, the garrison of Vado destroyed the stores, rendered the greater part of the artillery useless, and retired by sea towards Nice.

The Austrians were likewise successful on the 10th, near Varagio. Many men were killed on both sides; and the French were so warmly pressed, that general Massena hastened to the scene of action, to revive the courage of his troops, by his exhortations and example; but, though he repeatedly led them to the charge, he could not prevent their defeat. They retreated in disorder; and those who fled along the coast were exposed to a severe fire from some of the ships of lord Keith's squadron. On the following day, another engagement took place, in which the French were routed, and Massena with great difficulty escaped capture. General Suchet, having attacked another Austrian corps, seemed likely to gain the advantage; but he was at length repelled. On the 12th, a renewed conflict proved fatal to many gallant men; and several other spirited actions, prior to the battle of Voltri, increased the slaughter.

Near Voltri the engagement was more general and important than any of those which we have mentioned. General Melas gave directions, with his usual judgement, for the attack of various posts, the acquisition of which would facilitate the reduction of the city of Genoa. He led one division in person towards Monte Fajale, and vigorously assaulted the enemy, who would not, however, yield to his first attacks. At length he obtained the advantage, but not without great loss. The other divisions of his army were also victorious; all the strong posts near Genoa were seised; and Massena, being obliged to take refuge within the walls, was subjected to a close blockade.

On the Rhine, the campaign was not opened so early as that of Italy. The French crossed that river in different parts near the close of April; and several engagements attended their progress. On the 3d of May, a part of their army attacked the post of Stockach, which prince Joseph of Lorrain was too weak to defend with efficacy; and he was soon dislodged with considerable loss. Kray, who, on account of the ill health of the archduke Charles, had been appointed to the chief command of the Austrian troops, was now attacked at Engen by Moreau, who lost in repeated charges a great number of men. The archduke Ferdinand was at the same time encountered by a separate force, and obliged to fall back; but he afterwards repelled the assailants, and joined general Kray. The latter prevented the enemy from making any great impression, and kept the field during the night: but, at day-break, he thought proper to commence his retreat. The French boasted of having obtained the victory on this occasion; and, from a comparison of the different accounts, they appear to have had the advantage. On the 5th of May, the active Moreau again risqued a battle. Being ably assisted by Lecourbe, he made some impression on the Austrian battalions, notwithstanding their intrepid and indefatigable exertions; but his superiority of number did not enable him to complete his success, or encourage him to renew the conflict on the following day. His loss is supposed to have been greater than that which general Kray sustained; but of the number of killed

and wounded we have no accurate ſtatements. In this action, denominated the battle of Moſkirch, the Bavarian ſubſidiaries fought with ſuch ſpirit as to deſerve the praiſe of their fellow-combatants; and the Swiſs regiment of Roverea particularly diſtinguiſhed itſelf by its bravery and good conduct. Mr. Wickham, the Britiſh narrator of theſe engagements, affirms that 'few priſoners were made on either ſide;' while Moreau aſſerts, that the two battles produced to the French about 10,000 priſoners. The latter account is a palpable exaggeration; but between theſe diſcordant aſſertions let our readers judge. From this beginning of the German campaign, and the valor and confidence of the oppoſite commanders, many bloody conflicts may be apprehended during the ſummer; and probably none will be deciſive.

With regard to the internal affairs of France, we may obſerve, that the deliberations of the conſervative ſenate and other aſſemblies formed by the new conſtitution are not very intereſting, and have little influence on the character of the government, which is much more monarchical than the oſtenſible order of affairs would ſeem to indicate. The ſpirit and activity of the chief conſul appear in every department of the adminiſtration; and, upon the whole, France ſeems now to be better governed than at any time ſince the death of Louis XVI. This point is admitted by all candid anti-jacobins, though ſome zealots repreſent the ruling conſul as the vileſt of monſters and the moſt contemptible of human beings, their rage againſt him being inflamed almoſt to phrenſy by his preſent moderation.

HOLLAND.

Dreading another expedition from Great-Britain to the Texel, the Batavian directors have been very attentive to the means of defence, and have taken ſuch meaſures as will increaſe the difficulties of any new enterpriſe in favor of the houſe of Orange. But, unleſs the people in general ſhould become more inclined to the re-eſtabliſhment of that family than they appeared to be at the time of the late expedition,

the British court, we may conclude, will not renew the attempt.

GERMANY.

When the French consul made overtures of peace to the court of Vienna, the emperor properly replied, that he would not enter into a separate treaty. How soon his allies may agree to a negotiation, we cannot pretend to determine.

The elector of Bavaria, who, on his accession to his dignity, appeared to be friendly to the French interest, has been induced, by the persuasions of the courts of London and Vienna, to conclude a treaty, by which he is bound, in consideration of pecuniary grants from his Britannic majesty, to supply a considerable body of men for the purposes of the war. The duke of Wirtemberg has also engaged to allow a certain number of his subjects for the promotion of the cause of the confederacy.

SWITZERLAND.

This country has not in the present campaign been the theatre of war. Indeed, it has been so drained by French requisitions, and is so impoverished by the war in which it was unfortunately involved, that it affords little temptation to military rapacity.

SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.

The Spaniards still continue in a state of inactivity. They have again threatened to invade Portugal; but the alleged intention is only an idle menace.

The court of Lisbon has lately concluded an alliance with the Russian emperor, who has engaged to defend the feeble Portuguese against every attack. Their safety, however, will principally depend on the protection of Great-Britain.

ITALY.

Those Italian territories which in the last year were rescued from the French yoke, are not wholly free from disturbance. The cruelties exercised upon many of those who

had concurred with the French, were not calculated to allay the revolutionary ferment; and social order has by no means been re-eſtabliſhed.

Notwithſtanding the recovery of the Roman ſtate from Jacobin uſurpation, the papal dominion has not been reſtored in that territory. A ſupreme pontiff, however, has been elected at Venice, under the auſpices of the emperor, who has preſented him with a ſum of money as an earneſt of his regard and protection. The eccleſiaſtic thus honored has aſſumed the appellation of Pius VII. it being cuſtomary for a new head of the church to aſſume the name of the pope who promoted him to the dignity of cardinal. The new pontiff, who was before known as cardinal di Chiaramonte, is repreſented as a man of a mild diſpoſition, and of modeſt merit.

Though the king of Sardinia has not been gratified with the reſtitution of his dominions, his rights have been formally acknowledged by the emperor, who has promiſed to reſign to him, at the cloſe of the war, all the diſtricts occupied by the Auſtrian troops.

TURKEY.

While the Turks were endeavouring to expel the French from Egypt, the grand ſignor concluded a treaty of alliance with the Britiſh monarch. One of the articles imported, that the Turks ſhould continue the war againſt the French republic, even after the recovery of Egypt.

In November laſt, an attack was made on the French poſt at the mouth of the Damietta branch of the Nile, by Seid Ali (who commanded a Turkiſh detachment) and Sir Sidney Smith. The Turks who landed ſoon routed the firſt line of the French; but the remaining force of the republicans changed the ſcene, and repelled the Mohammedans, of whom 2000 were killed or made priſoners.

Near the cloſe of the year, the army of the grand vizir formed the ſiege of Al Ariſh. The operations were directed by major Douglas and other Britiſh officers; and the fort was taken by ſtorm on the 29th of December. About